

Public Personnel

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The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada

Public Personnel Review

*The Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly
of the United States and Canada*

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Editorial Notes and Comments

Our masthead says, "*Public Personnel Review*" provides a medium for the publication of factual material, and for materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions."

Apparently H. Donald McInnis' article, "Delegation of Classification Authority: Theory and Practice," published in the July issue evoked some "divergent opinions," as witness two letters of comment we have received from our readers. Because of their rather trenchant point of view, we are sharing them with you.

MARJORIE POLLOCK, *Position Classifier*, Chicago Quartermaster Depot, U.S. Army.

Assuming that Mr. McInnis' article, "Delegation of Classification Authority, Theory and Practice" (PPR, July 1951) is seriously intended and not some grisly joke, a few comments are in order.

Mr. McInnis jousts with the "cardinal principle" that classification is based upon difficulty and responsibility of duties and *nothing else*, and shatters it with the accusation that, in the field, such classification is only the "point of departure" for decisions based upon "administrative convenience" (a term derived, by virtue of a semantic trick, from the expression "good management"). The second windmill of Mr. McInnis' aim is the relative ineffectiveness in meeting classification objectives when classification authority is delegated to the operating level. He proposes a plan that would remove classifiers from the scene of the jobs, making them answerable only to other classifiers who are answerable only to—other classifiers? McInnis claims that management must observe this cardinal principle *especially* "when it hurts," "when it means losing a valuable employee," "not hiring an outstanding candidate," and so forth, if an effective classification program is to be realized.

What are these subversive pressures that influence the classification of jobs under the existing plan of delegation? Under the heading of "administrative convenience," should we list redistributing duties and responsibilities so as to create a job to use the skills and obtain or retain the services of a qualified applicant or employee whose special skills are needed by the activity? Does it include obtaining or retaining the services of an applicant or

employee who demonstrates promise of valuable service but who fails to fully qualify? Such cases are surely covered by the currently popular term and important management practice of "job re-engineering." They are further part and parcel of McInnis' third objective of position classification: advice to management regarding such matters as "ways of strengthening positions." Obviously jobs can be re-engineered to meet the exigencies of "administrative convenience" without sacrificing technical accuracy. Such advisory service to operating officials by a classifier on the staff of the operating agency is characterized as "psychological compulsion to give pleasing answers" and "emotional involvement in personal and programmatic problems"; when the same advice is given by the same classifier who now reports to the Civil Service Commission, it is competent and honest advice. Mr. McInnis seems to see classifiers in the field offices as Milquetoasts, badgered willy-nilly by administrators whose objective is to wreck their own organizations. While picturesque, this viewpoint hardly seems realistic. In this reader's experience, classifiers are notoriously saturated with integrity, obstinacy, and the crusader spirit. This is not to imply that the majority of classifiers go forth to daily battle with administrators, clad in the shining armor of objectivity; but certainly it has been proved that the classifier who succumbs to "insidious psychological influences," who is corrupted, or who weakly fails to distinguish between personal attributes and job duties and responsibilities, is soon enough impaled upon the sharp sword of misaligned pay and blamed for operational breakdown. The end result of classification in itself tends to insure the objectivity of individual classifiers.

Perhaps McInnis' plan would merely encourage arrogance, bigger and better ivory towers, and wilder delusions of grandeur, based on the classifier's sure conviction that his technical decisions are "full, one-hundred-percent, applied to every-case, right." Classifiers should not be set apart as judges or policemen, but rather should be integrated in operations as a sympathetic tool of management, sensitive to management's problems and exerting an effort to assist management in meeting the over-all goal of production. Divorce of

(continued on page 226)

Personnel Management in American Foreign Affairs . . .

FREDERICK C. MOSHER

STUDENTS of public personnel administration have long espoused the goal of a career system for the public service. Paradoxically, the efforts they have directed to the civil service have largely diverted their attention from other sectors of government in which career systems have long been established. These include the military services and some of their relatives in the federal government, such as the Public Health Service. True, local civil services have embraced the police and fire departments, which are quasi-military career groups. At the federal level, however, relatively little over-all study or consideration has been given either to the relation between the civil service and the noncivil career services or to their possible amalgamation. Neither has there been much evaluation of the concepts and practices of the two systems from the point of view of their possible application to each other.

The State Department and its field arm, the Foreign Service, offer a striking example of the comparative workings of the civil service system and a fully flowered career system within the same organization. Consideration of this problem today is particularly timely. Though publicly obscured because of the floodlight recently cast on more spectacular aspects of the State Department, its personnel systems have been the object of no fewer than four separate studies and reports in the past five years. All focused upon the career system of the Foreign Service, and the last three dealt particularly with its relation to the Departmental civil service. The first study, conducted within the Department by a Foreign Service group, culminated in the passage of the Foreign Service Act of 1946,

the present basic charter of the Foreign Service system. The second, conducted by the Foreign Affairs Task Force of the Hoover Commission, led to one of the most important recommendations made by that body:

The personnel in the permanent State Department establishment in Washington and the personnel of the Foreign Service above certain levels should be amalgamated over a short period of years into a single foreign affairs service. . . .¹

In December, 1949, Secretary of State Acheson appointed a three-man Advisory Committee on Personnel, usually known by the name of its chairman as the Rowe Committee, to study and make recommendations on the two personnel systems.² With the aid of a small staff, the Rowe Committee conducted an intensive study of all aspects of the problem, including interviews with a large number of people within and outside the Department and an extensive employee-attitude study of representatives of all groups in the Department and Foreign Service. Its report, submitted in August, 1950, recommended establishment of a single Foreign Affairs Service embracing both Departmental and Foreign Service employees. Like the Hoover Commission, the Rowe Committee contemplated a much broadened career service fundamentally on the model of the For-

¹ Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, *Foreign Affairs*, February, 1949, p. 61.

² This Committee included: Chairman James H. Rowe, Jr., a lawyer, now in private practice, recently a member, like Secretary Acheson, of the Hoover Commission; Robert Ramspeck, long-time champion and constructive critic of the United States civil service system in the House of Representatives, subsequently appointed Chairman of the U. S. Civil Service Commission; and the Honorable William E. DeCoursey, Ambassador to Haiti, a Foreign Service officer of long experience and the highest reputation. William F. Howell, who has had a long and varied experience in personnel administration, was the Committee's staff director.

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eign Service, and, at least initially, outside the Civil Service system.

The State Department conducted its own intensive study following receipt of the Committee report, and in March, 1951, announced its decision and the course of action it would follow. While not rejecting an integrated service as an ultimate objective, the Department concluded that it should move in that direction very gradually by administrative measures and limited modifications of the legal framework. It proposes to stimulate interchange assignments between the two groups, increase the appointments of experienced personnel in the Foreign Service career corps, and improve the personnel programs of both services. The Department has thus decided to maintain dual personnel systems for the indefinite future.

The very fact of four such studies in half a decade is a clue to the importance and urgency of the problem as well as to its complexity.³ All four reports identified and addressed the same basic questions, and at least the last three indicated some degree of consensus as to objectives and solutions. It is of parenthetical interest that the reports of both groups outside the Department recommended the more radical solution of integration; neither of the studies of the action-responsible Department reached such a conclusion. And the Secretary of State has been on both sides.⁴ Before examining the basic career service issues in the foreign relations field more carefully, let us review briefly the historical development of the two services.

The Development of the Foreign Service

ALTHOUGH the present Foreign Service ca-

reer system is of comparatively recent origin, it still recognizes and to some extent represents practices and traditions deeply embedded in history. The exchange of diplomatic representatives by the heads of sovereign states has produced, through the centuries, a body of international convention and custom which to a quite surprising extent condition personnel management. The very idea that diplomats are emissaries of the executive, recognized in our constitution and reinforced by statute, contributes to the unique position of the Foreign Service and to attendant organizational and status problems. To the extent that international practices and agreements condition accreditations, titles, prerogatives, etc., the freedom of action of any one nation may be limited. More important, the fact that the members of the service live in foreign lands and associate with their counterpart diplomats from other countries sustains attitudes and conventions of international rather than domestic origin. These factors lend considerable force to the demand for distinctive treatment and special career recognition.

The pattern of the present career service was not established, however, until the passage of the Rogers Act in 1924. Like earlier Civil Service legislation, this law attempted to establish a merit system and particularly to eliminate political influence from appointments and promotions. By raising pay and other compensations, it endeavored to attract worthy recruits, previously discouraged by pay so low that only men of independent means could accept many posts. In considerable detail, it laid the framework for a relatively small, highly selected, disciplined body of Foreign Service officers.

The Rogers Act was the first of a series of amalgamations and expansions that in a quarter-century have transformed the diplomatic service. It created the Foreign Service of the United States by bringing together the formerly separate consular and diplomatic corps. Fifteen years later, President Roosevelt transferred into the Foreign Service the overseas services of the Department of Commerce and the Department of Agriculture.⁵ This action brought

³ In addition to those mentioned, the Bureau of the Budget made an unpublished study in 1945.

⁴ Secretary Acheson has in fact been involved in all four studies. As Undersecretary in 1946, he supported the Foreign Service Act. His role at that time, however, was apparently one of endorsing a Departmental position to which Secretary Byrnes was already committed. He did not participate decisively in the formation of the position. As Vice-Chairman of the Hoover Commission, he endorsed that body's amalgamation proposal and probably played an active part in its development. He appointed the Rowe Committee, and his letter to that group provided the broadest possible terms of reference for its study. Finally, he announced the Department's decision in 1951.

⁵ Reorganization Plan No. II, 1939.

with its problems of absorption and functional expansion that even now are not fully solved; it also greatly complicated the organizational situation by introducing legitimate managerial concerns of other federal agencies in the State Department's field program. Subsequent actions toward the objective of unified representation of the United States government abroad, have brought within the purview of the Foreign Service functions and, in some cases, personnel of many other federal agencies which have an interest in overseas matters.

Increased work loads of the World War II period necessitated the hiring of hundreds of new personnel, including substantial numbers of professional and technical specialists. Most of these came in as members of the "Auxiliary Foreign Service," a wartime category set up in 1941. By the end of 1945, there were more auxiliary officers than career Foreign Service Officers. After the War, the State Department and the Foreign Service absorbed some of the programs and personnel of several war agencies, such as the OWI, FEA, and OSS. The growth in size of the Service, though great, has probably been less significant than its growth in scope and specializations.

The "core" of the Service, as set up under the Rogers Act, had to be enlarged or somehow adjusted to accommodate a large variety of economists, labor representatives, tele-communications specialists, movie experts, aviation specialists, welfare officers, finance specialists, and administrative officers. Curiously enough, each of our diplomatic missions overseas has now become a microcosm of a large part of our whole federal government. Far from being a narrow, foreign representation outpost, each mission now comprises probably a wider variety of different types of functions than any other units of comparable size in the entire government. Though the size of the Foreign Service is still relatively small in terms of the federal field service generally, the personnel problem has far outgrown the period when every officer knew every other and when informal personnel procedures sufficed.

In response to these pressures of quali-

tative and quantitative growth, the State Department undertook to modify the legal constitution of the Foreign Service in such a way as to absorb the new elements and provide for an increased flexibility for future changes without doing violence to the career principle. The Office of the Foreign Service, in the Department, conducted an intensive study during 1945 and 1946 and drafted legislation which, after a long series of negotiations and compromises, became the Foreign Service Act of 1946, successor to the Rogers Act.⁶ The Act provided flexibility largely through the extension and elaboration of the category system whereby personnel in both professional and administrative capacities could be employed outside the central career corps. It retained the unity and exclusiveness of the Foreign Service Officer group (FSO) substantially intact. This FSO group was conceived as the corps of generalist officers in foreign affairs. Other professional or officer personnel were to be appointed either as Foreign Service Reserve Officers (FSR), in which case their tenure was limited to four years, or as officers in the Foreign Service Staff (FSS). This latter category, the Foreign Service Staff, comprises the bulk of the clerical, administrative, technical, and lower level professional personnel of the Service. The other categories provided under the Act include Ambassadors and Ministers, alien employees, and Consular Agents; these raised no particular problems. Although the FSO group has grown very substantially in size (about 65 per cent in five years), its growth has been at a slower rate than the rest of the Service. Its strength, in the neighborhood of 1400, compares with more than 4800 FSS personnel of whom about 1600 are considered officers. The Reserve group is fewer than 300 and the largest bloc of these are in informational and cultural work.

The Foreign Service Act of 1946 also introduced many features which reflected progressive thinking in public personnel administration. It provided for a position classification system for FSS personnel,

⁶ The Committee on Public Administration Cases in 1949 prepared *The Foreign Service Act of 1946*, an absorbing and detailed monograph on the passage of this Act.

and, with modified force, for FSO's. In keeping with its letter and spirit, the State Department has made notable progress in selection, performance ratings, promotion and transfer systems, and probationary administration. The Foreign Service Institute, established under the Act, has provided a greatly broadened training program for both Departmental and Foreign Service personnel. Yet, as the product of compromise, and as an effort to reconcile two widely divergent points of view in personnel administration, the Act in operation has fully satisfied neither its supporters nor its critics. In spite of marked improvements under its provisions, it was being challenged and re-examined even before it was fully implemented.

Development of the Departmental Service

WITH the exception of the Presidentially appointed top officers, such as the Secretary, Under Secretary, and Assistant Secretaries, the employment policies for the regular Washington staff of the State Department are rooted in the Civil Service Act of 1883 and succeeding legislation applicable to the federal civil service in general. Recruitment and selection are performed by, or subject to, the regulations of the United States Civil Service Commission. Standards and procedures governing personnel activities are likewise government-wide and subject to varying degrees of central control and review by the Civil Service Commission. Transfers of Civil Service employees between government agencies in Washington are fairly easy of accomplishment and are so frequent as to be considered almost as standard employment behavior. The civil servant of the State Department is thus likely to regard all agencies in Washington which employ his particular brand of functional specialization the arena for his government career. His personal and professional affiliations with associates in other federal agencies are often stronger than those with the members of the field branch of his own Department. This phenomenon is not unique to the State Department, though it may be more marked there because of the existence of an entirely different type of per-

sonnel system for the Foreign Service and because of the greater distances from the central office.

Three significant distinguishing features in the recent development of the State Department's home service should be pointed out. First is the phenomenal growth of the organization over the past dozen years, comparable to and exceeding that of the Foreign Service. With the sudden emergence of the United States in the field of foreign affairs, the Department underwent an expansion of explosive proportions, measured quantitatively from a strength of about 960 in 1938 to about 8,600 in 1951, an increase of nearly 800 per cent. Most of the expansion occurred in functional areas in which the Department had little or no previous program—economic, informational, cultural, intelligence, and multi-lateral or United Nations fields. This development was accomplished by bringing in at high or middle levels large numbers of professional, technical, and administrative personnel, many by transfer from other government agencies. It brought a high degree of fluidity in terms of rapid reassignments, reorganizations, and promotions to a Department previously characterized as a highly stable organization. The oldest Department of the government assumed many of the attributes of the youngest—many new and relatively young people in important positions, a wide variety of backgrounds and points of view, and relatively loosely defined responsibilities and procedures.⁷

A second feature has to do with the internal organization of the Department. Unlike most of the other large federal agencies, the State Department has never been "bureau-cratized." Its small size and the nature of its responsibilities once lent to the Department itself some of the attributes of a federal bureau: relative self-

⁷ James L. McCamy, in his recent book, *The Administration of American Foreign Affairs* (1950), presents some interesting statistics on the experience, education, and other characteristics of the professional personnel of both the State Department and the Foreign Service. His data tend to confirm the impression that the Departmental officials represent a wide variety of previous experiences both within and outside the federal service and that many are relatively young and new to the State Department.

sufficiency, cohesiveness, and internal loyalty. But there have been few strong, unified functional "empires" within the Department. However, conflict has long existed between groups concerned with the problems of a particular country or region and those concerned with making more effective the various functional specialties, particularly those in the economic, information, and intelligence fields. A dual and competitive organizational arrangement developed, one sector of the Department being structured geographically on the basis of region and country, the other on the basis of function.⁸ Historically the geographic groups, sometimes called "political" groups, dominated important decision-making. The expansion of the functional specialties during the last decade threatened this dominance. The reorganization of 1949, which in the main carried out Hoover Commission proposals, recognized geography as the basic subdivision by establishing four geographic bureaus and a fifth for United Nations affairs, each empowered to handle all functional problems in its area. Specialized functional personnel were transferred into the bureaus and merged with the employees of the old geographic units. Smaller functional units were retained to serve in a staff coordinating role.

The third significant feature has to do with the assignment of Foreign Service personnel, and particularly FSO's, to posts in Washington. This practice, which is of long standing, is designed to take advantage of experience gained overseas as well as to reacquaint our overseas representatives with domestic thinking on foreign affairs. Since these FSO's have been assigned predominantly to the controlling positions in the geographic units and in the units responsible for Foreign Service administration, their presence has accentuated the organizational dichotomy between geographic and functional subdivisions. The recent reorganization, bringing Foreign Service and Civil Service personnel

into common units, was designed to provide a basis for greater cohesiveness and unity.

Characteristics of the Career System

THE SUDDEN growth and transition of the foreign program of the United States aggravated the more or less inherent difficulties of operating two personnel systems in one organization. They put unusual strains on both systems, which were felt most keenly by a Foreign Service designed for stability. All the recent study groups directed their main attention to the Foreign Service, and concentrated particularly on the small but key group, the Foreign Service officers. The rest of the Foreign Service would raise relatively few problems in a merger with the Departmental service. In fact, personnel administration for the FSS group more nearly resembles standard civil service practice than it does the FSO system. The tabulation below summarizes some of the significant differences in basic personnel practices between the FSO and Civil Service systems:⁹

The logic of the closed career service, underlying the personnel practices outlined for the Foreign Service, may be expressed somewhat as follows: Entry is predominantly at the bottom level and at a young age, in order that the best qualified people can be recruited before they are drawn off to other lines of work, and in order to train and develop them systematically for top jobs within the Service. Because every appointment constitutes a major investment and commitment, selection is based upon the most rigorous standards and competition. To attract and keep the best men, the organization must assure them careers of successively more challenging, responsible, and rewarding assignments. In small and stable programs, regular advancement can be assured only by

⁸ An illuminating analysis of this problem is contained in Arthur W. Macmahon's paper on "Function and Area in the Administration of International Affairs," published in *New Horizons in Public Administration*, 1945.

⁹ It is, of course, impossible to generalize categorically about Civil Service because of the wide variety of practices used in different organizations and for different types of employees. The attributes stated here seem reasonably descriptive of practices applicable to professional personnel who are most comparable to FSO's. Positive programs recently instituted for internships and executive development are variants from the Civil Service norm that closely resemble the career idea.

FOREIGN SERVICE OFFICERS

CIVIL SERVICE¹⁰

<i>Recruitment and Selection</i>	Recruitment restricted in the main to bottom grades; numbers recruited governed by prospective future requirements of higher levels; persons of high developmental potential selected on basis of stiff competitive examination by a central board.	Recruitment at all grades as required by current needs; if qualified promotional material not readily available, new personnel selected largely on basis of immediate usefulness; initiative in recruitment and nomination often taken by operating personnel; competitive examination at bottom levels; qualifications for upper professional jobs determined on basis of review of background and experience.
<i>Assignments and Transfers</i>	Centrally controlled and directed with some effort at systematic career development; transfers from post to post are frequent, but with the Department and other federal agencies relatively infrequent.	Most often initiated and worked out by the employee and or with his operating supervisors; central personnel office reviews and ratifies, and intervenes and handles special and problem cases.
<i>Classification</i>	Position classification advisory, but not controlling in either current assignments or promotion.	Position classification controlling in assignment and promotion.
<i>Promotions</i>	Emphasis on service-wide, competitive promotion system, from grade to grade on a man-to-man basis, with due regard for seniority in grade; board determinations made annually within set numerical quotas for each grade; grades are very broad and few in number, and promotions are slow, averaging about one every five or six years.	Promotion on basis of reclassification of jobs or filling of job vacancies, usually on initiative of supervisor with review by personnel office; mostly non-competitive in professional classes.
<i>Tenure</i>	Tenure in program for most of working career is normal; separation of older personnel encouraged by special retirement system and lower retirement ages; automatic "selection-out" of officers failing of promotion over a long period of years.	More flexibility in transfers in and out of government service; higher turnover.
<i>Efficiency Ratings</i>	Much stress on complete, honest, and fair ratings of performance, as requisite for competitive promotion system.	Ratings a relatively minor consideration in placement or promotion.

reserving middle and top level vacancies for career personnel.

Appointments to such vacancies from outside the career service, commonly called "lateral entries," are therefore minimized or eliminated entirely. Likewise, heavy emphasis in personnel management is placed

upon the promotion system to ensure that it will be competitive and equitable. In the Foreign Service, this need has led to a fairly involved annual procedure for determining class-to-class promotions by *ad hoc* selection boards. Principal reliance is upon records and ratings of performance and these have therefore been developed both technically and quantitatively to provide complete and comparable information about each officer.

This type of service is designed to pro-

¹⁰ Most of the practices shown are equally descriptive of the FSS personnel operations. But classification is less controlling than in Civil Service, and FSS promotions are now handled on a competitive basis by periodic panels, somewhat comparable to the FSO system.

duce a corps of officers of high intellectual and moral caliber, systematically developed and experienced, available and qualified for assignments anywhere in the world. In return for the security of tenure and the prestige of the Service, its members offer a high degree of dedication to duty, reliability, and high standards of professional conduct. The common backgrounds and objectives of the members is the basis for a high degree of cohesiveness within the group, and accompanying attributes of group solidarity, loyalty, and discipline. Foreign Service Officers emphasize the importance and necessity of unhesitating response to orders even though they involve privations, separation from family, boredom, and even personal danger.

Critics of the Foreign Service, and of other career services, cite draw-backs inherent in its very advantages. Similar in some respects to a guild, the corps places emphasis upon group goals which may compete with the governmental goals for which the group was formed. The exclusion from the important jobs of outsiders who may be even better qualified restricts the freedom of management and violates the merit principle. The separation and independence from other elements of the organization and of the American society may create barriers to communication with others in the organization and a lack of organizational, political, and social responsiveness. Group solidarity tends to mold the minds of its members into a uniform cast, without the leavening influence of new people and new approaches.

The Career System and Program Needs

ONE yardstick in assessing the merits of a personnel system is the degree to which it provides management with people equipped to do the work of the organization. First, does it produce a reliable supply of high level leaders and executives, qualified to form and execute policy? Second, does it produce men with the necessary specialized knowledge and experience?

The Foreign Service sets as its goal the provision of a pool of high-grade generalist

officers, capable of varied assignment and of foreign policy leadership. Its method of developing such leaders is through experience in the Service itself—an experience which is varied, comprehending different functional fields, and is systematically progressive in level of responsibility. The paucity of educational programs directed to areal specialism and leading to thorough understanding of all aspects of other countries of the world made such self-reliance almost inevitable. The knowledges involved in living in and understanding foreign countries and working with foreign governments were, until quite recently, almost unique to the Foreign Service itself. But this kind of equipment and experience is not enough for a leader in a "total" foreign policy program today. Types of information required in traditional diplomacy must be supplemented by broad and deep understanding of peoples, cultures, and economies. Furthermore, foreign policy is today the No. 1 interest and political issue in the United States; its formulation requires continuously refreshed insights into American conditions and thought. FSO's, who spend the greater part of their working lives overseas, are in a particularly difficult situation to keep in touch with the American scene.

The career system has been unable to produce within itself all the functional specialists now required in foreign affairs. The Service has tried to meet these needs through the category system and a limited number of lateral entries. Some Departmental offices, as well as other departments which rely upon the Service in their overseas programs, have complained of the shortage of qualified specialists in the Service, of its failure to recruit more functionally qualified people, and of alleged discriminations in assignments and promotions in favor of the generalist officers. These critics feel that specialized experience in such fields as information or economics, agriculture or labor, on a progressively broadening basis can likewise prepare men for foreign policy leadership.

This coin has another side. The Departmental Service has been reasonably successful in building up its own technical and professional staffs. But there seems to be

general agreement that a substantial proportion of these are deficient in their lack of first-hand acquaintance with the foreign countries with which they are concerned. In fact, the Departmental offices have long relied upon the FSO's stationed in Washington for information and guidance deriving from their overseas experience.

This does not seem to be a proposition of "either-or" but of "both." The Foreign Service people need more time at home and more specialization and study in area and function. The Departmental people need experience overseas and understandings beyond their functional specialties.

The State Department has tried to ameliorate these difficulties in several ways. A much broadened program, under the Foreign Service Institute, has endeavored to develop areal training and to sponsor specialized study for some FSO's. Pursuant to the Foreign Service Act of 1946, somewhat more frequent assignments in the United States have been provided for FSO's, and arrangements have been made to bring all American Foreign Service personnel back to the United States on home leave. Some Departmental personnel have taken overseas assignments in the various Foreign Service categories. More recently, interchange assignments have been arranged on short-term bases, whereby Washington officers may acquire field experience and FSO's may serve in the United States. Many of these programs are relatively new and have so far been on a limited basis.

Another criterion for judging the effectiveness of a personnel system is its flexibility in relation to program needs. This is a critical difficulty of the strictly closed career system. If the Service depends exclusively upon bottom-level entry, it can adjust its size only by opening or closing the valve in the pipe line of new recruits. Such new recruits will not qualify for full journeyman or executive responsibility for ten to twenty years. Present recruiting policy then rests upon whatever prediction can be made of Service personnel needs in 1960 and 1970. And this prediction must be made in terms not only of the total numbers needed but also of functional and areal specialties. If the

needs suddenly and unpredictably expand or change, the Service has two alternatives: to permit lateral entries into the Service at intermediate and higher levels or to utilize other categories of personnel to do professional work but without career status. The Foreign Service has utilized both these techniques, but they have been sources of almost continuous contention.

Lateral entries to the FSO group were authorized and carried out in considerable numbers after the War. The so-called Foreign Service Manpower Act in 1946 authorized some 250 such appointments, subject to examination procedures, and the Foreign Service Act itself provides for certain types of transfers into the Service on a permanent basis. Relatively few appointments under the latter provisions have been made. The FSO's have resisted large-scale lateral entries on a number of grounds: that persons without extensive Service experience are not qualified for high-level appointments; that many applicants are interested in the prestige and benefits of the Service but will not dedicate themselves to it or even remain in it, if faced with undesirable assignments; that such appointments are unfair to younger officers who are working themselves up the hard way; and that they damage the morale of the whole Service. Lateral appointments, if carried on in considerable volume and as a regular practice, would constitute a threat to, or at least a dilution of, the central concept of the career system.

The Category System and the Problem of Status

THE other outlet for the pressures of changing program needs—the use of different categories of personnel—introduces important problems of its own. First, it should be noted that, regardless of program changes, the use of categories is an almost inevitable accompaniment to any closed career system. Recruitment even at the bottom level of the career group is limited to the number who, with a reasonable allowance for attrition, will later be required for top level positions. In the normal pyramidal pattern of job levels in any agency, this group would seldom if

ever be large enough to do all the bottom, or intermediate level work. Consequently, the working force must be augmented by other types of employees, not in the career system and not competing for promotions in the same channels. Thus there is a necessity for differing personnel practices for this group of employees, even though some of them perform functions similar to those of many career officers. The Foreign Service has long relied on its clerks for clerical and administrative tasks and upon its "noncareer" officers for much of its journeyman professional work, especially in consular activities. Since 1946, the Foreign Service Staff has embraced these officers and employees as well as a considerable number of new specialists in other fields. These employees are selected and hired on a fluid basis, usually without a formal examination and are assigned to jobs classified somewhat as in normal civil service practice. They have their own pay scale and are under the Civil Service Retirement System. Although the "ceiling" on FSS jobs was raised in 1946 to the \$10,000 level, advancement opportunities for the great majority are limited. FSO's continue to hold most of the top positions.

The category distinctions have become the basis for a fairly pervasive social differentiation among the groups, although their emphasis varies widely from post to post. In the average sizable Foreign Service post, levels of prestige tend to conform roughly with the categories of personnel. The ladder, from the top, includes the following rungs: the Ambassador, the FSO's, the Reserve officers, the FSS officers, the FSS employees, and the local, non-American employees.

The principal problems have grown out of the status manifestations attaching to the FSO's and their superior relationship to the FSS. The distinctions between these groups at many posts are strong and conspicuous, are deliberately engendered, and are in part embedded in law. They are a product of, or are manifested in, the following types of factors:

1. Differing types and levels of occupation, reflecting recognition of higher degree of pro-

fessionalism, background education and training, compensation, etc.

2. Differing levels of authority and responsibility in the organization.

3. Differing terms of employment, and distinctive personnel treatment, including differences in benefits and obligations. It should be noted that these are not necessarily to the benefit of the higher status group. The obligations of the FSO group, for example, are considered of a higher order than those of the FSS, and some of the rewards, such as salary differentials at hardship posts, are to the distinct advantage of the FSS.

4. Outward symbols attaching to members of the group, many of which grow out of international conventions and traditions. In addition to the normal status symbols common in organizations—office furnishings, location of desk, parking facilities, dining facilities—the FSO group is differentiated by diplomatic titles and commissions, inclusion and order of diplomatic lists, diplomatic passports, immunities, license plates, and other distinctions.

5. Clear differentiation of social groups both in the working situation and in formal and informal social engagements outside the office.

Status distinctions are common if not universal in large organizations. It is probable that they are both useful and necessary as long as they represent reasonable and well understood accompaniments to occupation, position, and responsibility. Conversely, when the functional basis for status differentiation is cloudy or questionable, it becomes a source of serious organizational difficulty. The preservation of status distinctions may become a disproportionately important goal for members of the higher status group. The lower status group may harbor resentment and even antagonism toward what it feels to be unjust and unjustified subordination. The barriers between the groups, a normal price of status distinction, may become so exaggerated as to impede and even block communication and teamwork in common organizational effort.

The functional basis for the category system of the Foreign Service is no longer clear. The increasing use of FSS, FSR, and Civil Service personnel on almost all aspects and levels of our foreign program has weakened the historic justification for

many of the FSO status attributes. Highly qualified specialists in these other categories are now frequently assigned to conduct work in the international realm of high diplomatic significance. Is it proper, or managerially sensible, to handicap them by marking them as anything less than first-class employees? Lower and middle-grade FSO's now frequently work with, or under, persons in other categories who are their seniors in qualifications, experience, and sometimes even seniority. Entering FSO's, fresh from the campus, are apprentices, not diplomats. The wisdom of burdening them, or expanding their hat sizes, with the aura of diplomatic status at a still impressionable age is at least questionable.

Three methods of attacking the inter-related problems of category and status suggest themselves. The first, and most radical, method would be to put the entire Service, and even the entire Department, in a single category and permit the attributes of status to grow out of organizational level and responsibility. This would severely modify, or even abolish, the closed career concept. It is noteworthy that none of the four study groups recommended so extreme a step.

A second line of attack would be to modify the constituency of the categories so that they reflect clearly distinguishable occupations and levels of responsibility. For example, the Rowe Committee proposed opening up the career group to include all professional and managerial positions, providing a separate group of clerical and technical employees, and substituting for the Reserve corps a system of temporary appointments in the officer group. The Department's recent announcement indicates its hope that the same purpose can be accomplished by a more clear policy on the role and use of existing categories under the definitions of the Foreign Service Act. Both of these proposals would necessitate great expansions in the officer corps through lateral appointments.

A third approach would reduce the attributes of status and lower the barriers between the categories. This might include elimination of some of the status symbols,

equalization of conditions of employment, facilitation of "promotions" from the lower category to the higher, and conscious stimulation of social intercourse between the categories. Along this line, the Department agrees with the Rowe Committee on the need for a uniform pay plan and common retirement and leave provisions for all Foreign Service categories. Its liberal lateral appointment policy would facilitate transfers from category to category. But these changes would not greatly affect Foreign Service-Departmental relations.

Dual vs. Unitary Personnel Management

MUCH of the argument for integrating the Departmental and Foreign Services has stressed the managerial problems of running two quite different personnel systems side by side for common program objectives. This condition has undoubtedly made the coordinated planning of personnel functions more difficult. Coupled with a charge that the Foreign Service operated its own personnel system in a semi-autonomous manner, the whole personnel system was thought by some to be less responsive to top management than it should have been. In 1949, the Department undertook to improve the organizational arrangement, first by decentralizing to the operating bureaus substantial responsibility for personnel management with respect to all personnel concerned with their geographic areas, and second by grouping the central personnel divisions under a Director of Personnel.

These actions undoubtedly contributed to better coordination of personnel work. Nonetheless, the basic dichotomy of personnel systems almost forces a parallel organizational dichotomy in personnel management. The operations, procedures, and standards of the two central personnel divisions are distinct, and their links with outside agencies are different. The Departmental group, like other agency personnel offices, works closely with the Civil Service Commission. The Foreign Service group works with representatives of other departments and agencies which utilize the Foreign Service. Its principal channel is the Board of Foreign Service and the variety of sub-boards and committees under its

jurisdiction, most of which include representatives both of the State Department and of other departments. The split extends even into Congress, where different committees in each house consider Foreign Service and Civil Service personnel matters respectively.

The awkwardnesses in personnel management that are introduced by separate systems are particularly troublesome in some of those fields which bear importantly on employee caliber and morale. Thus, there are three quite separate recruiting offices, with distinct procedures and standards. Transfers between home and field and interchange assignments are difficult procedurally, and involve all the differing regulations on promotions, salary administration, and classification. A great deal can be, and has been, done to coordinate these processes within the present administrative framework. But organizational integration, without integration of systems, would probably raise more problems than it solved.

The alternative, integration of both systems and organization, is not without organizational, institutional, and pragmatic obstacles. One method would be to incorporate the entire Foreign Service into the Civil Service. This would probably result in abolition or basic modification of the closed career system; it would probably force the revision of the examining, promotion, performance rating, and other procedures of which the Foreign Service is justly proud. It would introduce the Civil Service Commission into a type of personnel management for which it has little experience and for which many of its regulations and procedures are ill-suited. As a matter of cold political feasibility, the Foreign Service probably could and would muster enough support in the Administration and Congress to defeat such a proposal.

The only other way of integrating would appear to be to remove from regular Civil Service jurisdiction the employees of the State Department and incorporate them in a new corps by separate legislation, under the managerial direction of the Secretary of State. Would Civil Service construe this

as the beginning of a general separatist movement? Other agencies could present comparable arguments for autonomy. What about the other agencies which have overseas programs and personnel, and also those whose home offices are heavily involved in foreign affairs? The new service might be viewed by employees of other agencies as a new and enlarged career corps, endowed with privilege and autonomy. Integration in a new Service would raise a legion of technical and procedural problems, such as the Civil Service status of present State employees, entry requirements, and procedures in the new service, and the transferability between the new service and other departments.

A further consideration, which may be of dominating importance in the State Department today, is the potentially disrupting effects of a major change-over during this crucial period in international affairs. Fears have been expressed that integration would result in demoralization among the FSO group, the Departmental group, or both. The Secretary, in his announcement of the Department's decision, reflected this feeling when he held it "... essential that Departmental employees not be penalized for failure to accept the conditions of employment in an integrated Service." The attitude survey which the Rowe Committee conducted last year, on the other hand, indicated a quite surprising endorsement of the idea of integration among all the groups and categories of personnel. On the question of desirability "... from the point of view of the efficient organization of the foreign affairs of the United States ..." 73 per cent responded either "very desirable" or "somewhat desirable," and only 16 per cent thought it undesirable. A substantial plurality for the proposal was recorded by every category of personnel. On the question of the single service "... from the point of view of yourself and your own career ..." 60 per cent reported "very much" or "somewhat" in favor. Only the FSO group failed to give a clear plurality in favor. They voted 42 per cent in favor, 44 per cent opposed, and 14 per cent neutral or undecided. Substantial pluralities of Civil Service employees and officers were affirmative on both questions.

It is apparent that the State Department, in choosing to work gradually toward improvements within the present institutional framework, has elected the easier course, at least for the short run. Some will feel that it has lost an opportunity to develop a new type of personnel system, somewhere between the Civil Service and the Foreign Service, and better suited than either for its particular needs. The mild program it has announced can lead to the same destination, but some time before arrival it must solve or dissolve some of the problems here suggested.

Conclusion

EXPOSITION of contrasting systems tends to overemphasize differences, to minimize likenesses. The Foreign Service system has probably never been a "pure" closed career system in the sense the term has been used in this piece, and few of its most ardent proponents would advocate such a system. On the other hand, many sectors of the Civil Service have moved in the direction of earmarking particular groups, protecting them from outside competition, and grooming them for important assignments on a more or less privileged basis. This has occurred frequently within the highly professionalized bureaus and even among professions across bureau lines. It is probable that agency stability and permanency contribute to it, and that there is a particular demand in those fields in which the government is the principal or sole employer of certain types of specialists. Recent trends in civil service toward recruitment of future executives at an early age, internship and special training programs, and executive development through ear-

marking and planned placement much resemble features of the career service philosophy.

The advantages, even the necessity, for such programs are clear and real. But it is also clear that "positive" personnel administration, if carried to extremes, can produce corollary negative results. The career idea has always been identified with the provision of opportunity for growth, for development, for job satisfaction. The assurance of such opportunity for a selected and groomed group can in fact mean the denial or restriction of opportunity to personnel outside the group. The building of a high level of solidarity and morale within a group can damage morale to an equal degree among other personnel outside the group. The very structuring of groups on the basis of where the individuals came from (differential recruitment) and where they are going to (earmarking for executive positions) rather than on their current job responsibilities threatens total organizational unity and teamwork.

Solutions undoubtedly lie somewhere between the exclusive career service and the rather anarchic practice of defining positions, examining individuals for them, and appointing them with the prayerful hope that qualified candidates for the harder-to-fill top jobs will be available from somewhere. The dominant objective of personnel administration—to serve the needs of an agency program, now and in the future—should determine the kind of system to be used. To the extent that organizational objectives are unified and indivisible, there would appear to be *ipso facto* grounds for favoring unity in personnel administration.

The Federal Employee's Creed of Service

WE, as members of the civil service, accept our obligation and our opportunity to serve the American people well and in full measure, doing our best to further the free and democratic institutions of our country.

We believe it is our duty to—

Carry out loyally the will of the people as expressed in our laws; serve the public with fairness, courtesy, integrity, and understanding; help improve the efficiency, economy, and effectiveness of our work, and thus do our part in performing the great services of the Government.—*Federal Personnel Council.*

Making a Promotion Plan Work . JOHN W. ASHER, JR.

OUR government has become so compartmentalized in its operations that a large percentage of its employees spend their entire careers in one agency. And in far too many agencies, qualified employees are overlooked for promotion when a vacancy occurs or do not get consideration for promotion to vacant jobs unless they happen to hear of the opportunity informally or casually.

Few Agencies Have Formal Promotion Plans

I HAVE never met anyone with a good reason for being entirely opposed to promotion-from-within; yet recent surveys indicate that many agencies do not have a formal published statement of any kind on the subject, and only a few have a comprehensive, published plan that results in any more than token action. I submit that the principal reason for this condition is this—personnel management officials have neither the courage nor the energy to initiate, develop, and carry out a promotion plan that is acceptable to both employees and operating officials. Some are just plain too lazy—"they quit looking for work after they get a job." Others don't have the imagination and background that it takes to develop progressive personnel policies. Still others don't have the ability to sell such a progressive policy to top management. Of course, I would also be the first to recognize that operating officials who resist limitations on their right to select employees for promotion must share a part of the responsibility for the lack of progressive promotion policies.

Not all promotion plans are successful. It is my observation that a common reason many plans won't work satisfactorily is a fault in the plan itself. For example, many of the plans now in use were developed by management without consulting the employees. We think we know what em-

ployees want, but often we are mistaken. A workable personnel policy requires mutual confidence and trust between employees and management, an appreciation of their mutuality of interest. This is particularly true of any phase of a career program. Our employees have a vital interest in any policy that affects their welfare and their livelihood.

Features of a Good Promotion Plan

A NECESSARY feature of any promotion plan is to have in writing an easily understood statement of policy and procedure. Such a statement must be made available to all employees, and should have been developed jointly by management and employees. Employees particularly will have more enthusiasm for the plan and will materially assist in making it work if they have had a part in its development and an opportunity to recommend changes.

An alert personnel officer will detect desirable changes and put them into effect before he is forced to do so by pressure of employee groups. He will also be receptive to suggestions for change no matter what their source. On the other hand, any such policy statement should make it clear that the promotion policy, like any other personnel policy, is designed to put the best man or woman in the job. Also, the formal statement of policy must stress the responsibility of the individual for preparing himself and looking for opportunities for advancement.

The Promotion Program of the REA

AN OUTSTANDING feature of the Rural Electrification Administration plan is that we advertise practically *all* of our vacancies to our staff before we consider looking elsewhere for candidates. (This procedure seems to be most controversial.) The only exceptions are: (1) the positions of Administrator and his Deputy and Assistant, which are excepted positions; (2) the first promotion of trainees after their initial training period; (3) employees promoted

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as a result of reallocation; and (4) vacancies for which it is known that no candidates are available, for example messengers, etc.

It is our opinion, based on a comparative study of costs, that cutting a stencil showing the title of the vacant position, at least a brief description of the duties, the minimum qualification requirements, and other pertinent information about the vacancy and distributing it to the staff (both Washington and the field where appropriate) are less trouble and less expensive than attempting to establish promotion panels from general information geared to only one or two potential vacancies. A stencil is usually cut by a typist, duplicating facilities are readily available, and mimeographing is cheap. The advertisements are distributed with the regular inter-office mail at little or no additional expense.

The selection process is no different from that which would be used under any other system. Its success depends on how well you do the job. You have applicants that you know are interested in this particular job, and they have supplemented their experience record in the personnel file to fit this particular job. This feature of the plan is simple and economical to operate.

Enthusiasm for the program will depend almost entirely on the honest and fair manner in which the plan is administered. One of the greatest difficulties in this connection is to convince employees that they are not wasting their time in applying for an advertised vacancy. This can be accomplished by: (1) frankly stating in the advertisement the name of the employee who appears to be in line for the position, if there is one; others will apply only if they feel their qualifications are superior; (2) considering only those who did apply unless there appears to be some good reason why others did not; and (3) giving about three of the applicants (the more the better) a personal interview.

We have found the best procedure is to have applicants interviewed jointly by the prospective supervisor and a representative of the personnel office. More em-

ployees complain to us about not being interviewed than not being selected. We find operating officials more and more wanting to take the time to interview more than three candidates. Employees who are interviewed as indicated above feel that they have had genuine consideration for the job—that's not my statement; *employees* think it and say it. Interviews by operating officials are not limited to low-level supervisors. Recently the Administrator took time out from his heavy schedule to interview applicants for a high-level engineer vacancy on his staff.

In the interviews and later, consideration through multiple judgment is given to educational qualifications for the job, total experience, performance ratings, demonstrated ability to assume greater responsibility, attitude and interest, and seniority within the grade in REA.

The right of final selection should be, in so far as possible, that of the operating official, the personnel representative only making sure that the policy is not abused and giving professional advice on interviewing techniques.

A formal notice is sent to all unsuccessful candidates, showing the name of the person selected.

These are the highlights of our promotion plan that has been in effect for thirteen years. Now let me sum up and state briefly some strong points, some weaknesses, and what we consider some "proof of the pudding."

Four General Points of REA Plan

1. A published statement of policy jointly developed and refined through the years by management and employees.

2. Fair administration through advice to employees in advance when a known candidate is available, followed by personal interviews with about the three top applicants.

3. Selection of best qualified employee available in a realistic workable area of competition before looking outside but not hesitating to bring in "new blood" when desirable. Veterans are considered *in absentia*.

4. A strong in-service training plan to develop promotional material.

Results of REA Plan to Date

1. Strengthened staff morale by developing a feeling of confidence and security.
2. Decreased turnover.
3. An incentive for improvement.
4. Discovery of unknown talent.
5. Check on accuracy of job descriptions.
6. Keeping employees informed about agency's functions from reading job advertisements. This applies particularly to new activities such as our recent authority to make loans to extend telephone facilities in rural areas.
7. A basis for counseling employees for career development.
8. More prompt filling of vacancies in many cases.
9. Broadened employee opportunities.
10. Protecting agency's investment in training.
11. Increased production from employees.
12. Attraction of more and better applicants to organization.
13. Better conduct on part of employees.
14. Stimulation of opportunity for training.
15. Increased responsibility of supervisors.

Some Factors to Guard Against

1. Extreme care must be exercised to prevent the organization from becoming stereotyped and inbred, resulting in a lack of new ideas for improvements. This can be overcome by bringing in top-notch entrance level trainees, by conducting a comprehensive training program, and by not hesitating to bring in "new blood" at all levels when desirable.
2. Development of a defeatist attitude on the part of some employees who expect promotion on the basis of seniority alone.
3. Operational difficulty in an organization with field staff scattered from Alaska to the Virgin Islands.
4. Chain reaction of turnover that would have been avoided if the first vacancy had been filled from the outside.
5. Some time consumed in interviewing

rejected applicants—although many times this turns out to be mutually profitable for the employee and management.

6. Difficulty of securing consideration across division lines. Supervisors want to promote those whose work they know or whose personalities they are familiar with.

7. Difficulty of adapting the program to emergency conditions.

Acceptance of REA Plan

1. Four different Administrators have continued it.

2. The Administrator's Policy Advisory Committee, composed of top operating and staff officials, has reaffirmed the promotion policy on several occasions by a large majority vote and about a year ago recommended that the coverage of the plan be extended to positions above the grade GS-12 level.

3. The newly organized REA Employee Council has endorsed it.

4. The USDA Employee Council recommended the principles of our plan for a trial period of one year in all agencies of the Department of Agriculture.

5. Fewer complaints developed in "Gripe Sessions."

6. The Civil Service Inspection Service has complimented our promotion procedure.

7. A high percentage of our high level positions are filled by products of our promotion policy—only two of nine major division chiefs were brought into the organization at their present levels and more than half have worked from the bottom up. Our Assistant Administrator and Executive Officer have also come up through the ranks. Ten of our original class of engineer trainees of 1936 are still with us, now filling responsible positions.

8. Former employees in other agencies where no plan is in existence comment with enthusiasm about advantages.

This, then, in a nutshell is the REA employee promotion plan. The boss likes it, as a personnel man I like it, and our employees like it. It does a lot for all of us.

Do You Shave in Front of a Thesaurus? WILLIAM G. WAGGONER

MAYBE you don't, but it surely must be standard procedure for many authors of employee bulletins, instructional material, letters, and public speeches. You have to reach no farther than your "in" basket for such greetings as "your letter appears to be somewhat anachronistic." You see authors of this brand of dribble carrying their lunches to work in brief cases, and they no doubt shave every morning using a thesaurus for a mirror. Their major thrill in life comes from the delightful thesauristic echoes heard during the read-back of such letters.

In federal, state and municipal government, most employees who write letters are writing not to the person to whom the letter is addressed, but to the boss who signs it. He simply must be impressed by mysterious sound effects. You might logically expect that a supervisor who is susceptible to this form of employee flattery is a poor supervisor. This conclusion is not correct. Many successful supervisors after attaining their goal in life stop for a breather, look around, and wonder how they got so far using four- and five-letter words.

Exhibitionistic letters piled high and deep enough can wreck the standing of an entire department. This employee fault is something a reprimand will not cure. It is a way of life and if subjugated in one form of activity will break out in another with equally disastrous results.

Many employee publications are born a-dying because they either grow heavy with technical regulations, giving chapter and verse, or go overboard in the opposite direction with birth and party statistics. If you can work both into the same publication, death can be mercifully quick. What does the average employee care about the stringing together of long technical words, preceded or followed by a

number identification to a manual which only a handful of people know how to use, and fewer still, how to interpret. Mr. Average Employee only wants to know what the new developments mean to him, and that in good old conversational English. Or why would he be interested in Mary Jones's new baby weighing 7 pounds 2, with the possible exception of Mr. Jones's close associates thus warned to be on the lookout for free cigars. It might even be that Mr. Jones is the sensitive type who prefers not to have his sexual powers broadcast, nor the fecundity of his wife a subject of gossip.

Writers of instructional material are in a class by themselves. They never seem to know where to begin. They start either over the heads of the readers, or ignore completely their background. Masterpieces manage a combination of both extremes. Consider a circular letter that went out to employees who had been using telephones every day most of their lives. These instructions were "promulgated" upon the change-over to an inter-office dial system. Under the subject heading of "dialing":

The figures to be dialed must be dialed in order from left to right. To dial a number, place your finger firmly in the dial opening through which the figure is seen, and rotate the dial steadily in a clockwise direction until your finger strikes the finger stop. Then remove your finger and let the dial return to its normal position.

If the picture of a telephone plus a treatise on number sequence had been included with the instructions they would perhaps have been appropriate for Australian Bushmen. But these instructions were addressed to a business organization of over 500 persons, who had been placing their fingers firmly in dial openings through which figures are seen and rotating dials steadily from left to right, since shortly after their first spanking for pull-

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ing the telephone from its stand with their baby fingers.

Public speaking is just another form of letter writing and susceptible to as many forms of wrong treatment. How a trade or professional convention endures the vague, meaningless agenda speeches prepared for their consumption is a monument to human patience. Gargle this little gem from a speech made to a group of manufacturers.

The pivotal test for the addition of a new product is its profitability. If profit maximization were the sole goal of the enterprise, this test would encompass all others, but pluralistic motivation makes the other goals relevant as well. The relevant concept of profits is incremental returns over the appropriate time period.

How amazed these manufacturers must have been to learn that they were in business to make money! New ideas couched in precise even though multi-syllable words can be stimulating because you have to dig for them; but, an attempt to conceal the lack of an idea in vague elusive expressions is an insult to the intelligence of listeners. The fault is not all that of the speaker. Many times I have heard potential speakers discussed and the emphasis has been on good delivery and speaking presence, following rather than preceding

evaluation of the speakers' background which might promise something new and useful. The wrongly chosen speaker accepts because he wants to be a good fellow or because he is oiling up, by any means handy, for a political campaign. In either case his total contribution is good delivery and speaking presence.

Contradictory as it may seem, college graduates are the worst offenders in the written communication simply because they are more adept in choosing longer words where shorter ones would do the job twice as well. The college graduate by the same token is capable of becoming a better writer, and does, the moment he ceases to try and write up to a degree and determines rather to live it down. Were some sincere soul determined to leave his mark on the sands of time no better vehicle could be found than a reverse thesaurus, giving not over five-letter synonyms for all words in excess of that number of letters.

To sum up. Write to the person or group you are writing to. Plunge into the subject matter like a street vender with a new knife sharpening gadget does into his sales talk. Substitute "shorties" for "longies." Remember, a long letter is justified only when you don't have time to write a short one. Your particular public will be appreciative.

Wrap Up Your Package and Tie the String Tight

UNDOUBTEDLY there are many Army techniques that are not suited to civilian adaptation, but "completed staff work" is not one of them. This military requirement is a topnotch training device and a necessity for efficient administration. What is it? In the words of the U.S. Army's Provost Marshal:

Completed staff work is the study of a problem, and presentation of a solution, by a staff officer, in such form that all that remains to be done on the part of the head of the staff division, or the commander, is to indicate his approval or disapproval of the *completed action*. The words *completed action* are emphasized because the more difficult the problem is, the more the tendency is to present the problem to the chief in piece-meal fashion. It is your duty as staff officer to work out the details.

Civil Service Faces the Future . . . ANGUS LAIRD

THERE are some authorities who maintain that there is a difference between a "merit system" and a "civil service system."¹ Actually, the difference is in title only.² There is, however, a very great difference between a system or program administered in accordance with the spirit of merit and one administered on a spoils basis, regardless of the titles. Either type of program can exist under a merit system or a civil service system.

The name of our state organization is the Florida Merit System. Personally, I would prefer a different title. The story is told that after a quarrel between Themistocles and Aristides, the Just, in Ancient Athens, a popular election was held to determine which of the two should be ostracized. On the day of the voting, an illiterate citizen asked Aristides, who was unknown to the voter by sight, to write down the name of "Aristides" on the ballot. "Why," said Aristides, doing as he was asked, "do you wish to ostracize him?" "Because," said the man, "I am tired of hearing him called 'the Just.'" There is a certain amount of conceit in the title "merit system" and I fear the people may grow tired of hearing it. Furthermore, I doubt if we really know enough about "merit," and how to evaluate it, in order to systematize it. "Merit system" has certain implications that "merit plan," "merit basis," and "merit program" do not have. It is much more important that the spirit of merit prevail, than that merit be systematized.

Reform Stage of Civil Service

THE civil service movement can be said to have three stages of development. First, is

¹ *Municipal Personnel Administration* (Chicago: International City Managers' Association, 1950).

² See Charles B. Frasher, "The ABC's of the Merit System," *Journal of Public Health Nursing*, May, 1950.

• ANGUS LAIRD is Director of the Florida Merit System. This article is adapted from the Presidential address delivered by Mr. Laird at the Fifteenth Annual Convention of the Florida Association of Civil Service and Personnel Agencies.

the reform stage, when civil service was advocated as a means of doing away with the spoils system to prevent corruption in government. We have corruption in government today, but only the uninitiated and uninformed will say that job corruption and patronage are as bad as in pre-civil service days. Patronage, job-selling, salary kick-backs for campaign and other purposes, and vote control of employees were major tools of the political machines which controlled our cities and states a generation ago. They are minor sources of power today; their use is limited everywhere, and is practically nonexistent in many places. Let those who doubt that there has been improvement in civil service administration study their American history. We read so much of crime and corruption today—and conditions are disgraceful—that we get the impression everything about our government is worse than in the days of our fathers. To get a better-balanced view, read Lincoln Steffens' "Autobiography," "The Struggle for Self-Government," or "Shame of the Cities"; Harold Zink's *City Bosses in the United States*; and Dorothy Fowler's "The Cabinet Politician; the Postmaster General, 1829 to 1909." Those who think our civil service is more corrupt or less efficient than in the days of our fathers are ignorant of the facts of American history.

Technique Development Stage of Civil Service

THE second stage in the civil service movement was the period of trial and error of the development of methods and procedures. When I was a boy out in West Florida—and the same was true elsewhere in our state and nation—we could hardly have a baseball game with neighboring towns without a dispute and fight over the rules of the game, and it was not uncommon to have baseball bats used to bat heads as well as balls. Today, the rules, the methods, and procedures of baseball are well established and accepted, and it

is rare, indeed, that a fight develops over an umpire's ruling in a game. The merit system, or civil service if you please, has gone through the same developments in many communities, and in others is still going through them today. We, the civil service referees and umpires, still have much to learn and must improve our methods and procedures before we acquire the prestige and relative importance of baseball's umpires—I might add the pay, also.

But we are certainly on our way. Our basic methods and procedures have been established. Actually, many of us are in the position of the farmer who was asked if he were going to town to hear a lecture on better farming. "Naw," he replied, "I know already how to farm three times better than I'm farming." Too many of us already know how to do better than we're doing. We know how to get better workers for government service, and we know some of the incentives and methods which make for greater efficiency of workers after they are on the job. We must apply this knowledge with courage and determination as the referees, umpires, and czars of baseball have done. We still have much to know and to learn, but this should not deter us from doing that which we already know how to do.

Efficiency Stage of Civil Service Growth

THE second and third stages of civil service development overlap considerably. The civil service plan was not adopted simultaneously by the federal government and the state and local governments. There was a lapse of fifty-six years between the adoption of the civil service system by New York State in 1883 and the establishment in 1936 of the Merit System Committee of the Florida State Welfare Board, the beginning of our present Merit System. Some phases of the third stage apply only to old and established systems, others to all civil service agencies. The first aspect is negative in character because it calls for defense of the civil service system, the other is positive, for it calls for greater emphasis upon efficiency and the integrity of the public service. Time does not permit me to dwell upon these phases at length, but

I would like to discuss here a few of the points raised by our critics, which are numerous.

What the Spoilsmen Say

FIRST, let us consider criticism by the spoils politicians. A man who puts up \$100,000 to elect his candidate is likely to be as much of a spoilsman as Senator Marcy, who originated the phrase, "To the victors belong the spoils." They are unlikely to see any merit in the merit system. Then there are the disappointed job seekers, including disappointed employees who fail promotional tests. We are all familiar with their criticism. A third group consists of those who are so afraid of our government that they do not want it to be efficient. In the early part of 1949, I met with a group of businessmen who had studied the operations of a number of state agencies, and several of them had some good things to say about the operations of the merit system. But one of them, an executive in a large concern in the southern part of our state, objected with "But I don't want the government to be efficient," and turning to me, with a smile, he added, "I'm opposed to your system." I wish I had time to explore the possibilities of this statement. I believe in the free enterprise system as much as any businessman who opposes price fixing and licensing to control competition. But I do not believe we can have inefficiency in government and efficiency in business, or vice versa. Our society is so integrated, and the danger to our country is so common to all of us that "We must," to repeat the saying of Benjamin Franklin in another time of great peril, "all hang together or surely we shall all hang separately."

Then there are those good citizens who feel that the civil service system, or the merit system, has not fulfilled its promise, and they are disturbed by stories of red tape, examinations, and of not being able to fire anyone who is under civil service. Let us consider these latter objections before we take up their disappointment in the promise of civil service. We frequently hear complaints of red tape from the public and both the appointing authorities and applicants. What these people do not

know is that there is red tape in getting appointed under the spoils system too, and some persons who have had experience with both kinds have decided that it is simpler to make an appointment, and simpler to secure a position under the merit system. Some of the procedures may appear involved and complicated, but it must be remembered that fairness and equity require definite procedures, to which there must be strict adherence.

Examination and the Civil Service

CIVIL service examinations have also been criticized. Much of the criticism is due to a lack of understanding of the objective type of examination. I shall not attempt to defend this type of examination here. Suffice it to say that it is unquestionably the best device yet developed for the purpose of determining the knowledge of individuals and of ranking them on the basis of knowledge. We have not yet perfected methods of evaluating personality and training and experience, but the methods are more objective than generally realized. It must be remembered that we do not have any number of choices in this matter. Other objective methods that we—or the appointing authorities—might use, and the latter do use them on occasion, are age, sex, church membership, relationship, pulchritude, how the applicant voted in the last election, or how he said he voted, and how much he contributed to the campaign of his sponsor. These are objective factors, and a rating scheme could be developed for their use. Some applicants would receive a better rating than on a merit system examination. I once informed the director of a bureau employing a large number of women that what he wanted was for us to conduct a beauty contest, but the law required us to give a written test.

Tenure and the Civil Service

ANOTHER criticism frequently heard, perhaps the most frequent of all, concerns tenure under the civil service system. There is no justification for security of tenure for its own sake. The primary purpose of providing permanent tenure under civil service is to prevent arbitrary re-

moval of employees. This implies permanent employment as long as the employee is doing his work well and there is work to be done. Unfortunately, the safeguards established for this purpose in some civil service and merit system acts have sometimes made it difficult to remove employees for good cause. This has furnished an opportunity for expression of the criticism that "You can't fire anyone under civil service." At our last annual meeting one critic asserted that it took six months to dismiss a civil service employee in his city. An executive from an agency not under civil service was present and he arose to remark that it took six months to dismiss an employee in his agency too. What many critics fail to appreciate is that in the last fifty years security against arbitrary discharge for salaried and wage workers has become, for good or ill, a feature of American life and that it is not limited to public employees under the merit system. An authority on labor problems has recently written:

The old control through fear of discharge has long been weakening, if indeed it has not almost disappeared, in most of the important units of industry. Industry itself, in order to avoid criticism and discontent, and the entrance of the unions, has learned to act with a better appreciation of the point of view of the individual and of the workers as a whole.³

Uninformed persons may be enlightened on this subject by reading sections 8 and 9 of the Taft-Hartley Act, usually considered a conservative piece of legislation. An Associated Press story from Miami on January 30 of this year is also enlightening on this subject. The story reads, in part, as follows:

FIRM ORDERED TO PAY \$7000 TO DRIVERS WHO STRUCK AND LOST JOBS. Miami, AP, January 30. The Seven-Up Bottling Company, of Miami, Inc., today was ordered to reinstate and pay back wages to 11 driver salesmen who struck and were fired in September, 1948. The NLRB order confirmed findings of Trial Examiner A. Bruce Hunt and specified the money paid the drivers should be the difference between what they earned at other jobs

³ Henry S. Gilbertson, *Personnel Policies and Unionism* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1950), p. 239.

and what they would have earned had they stayed on with the company. Lunin estimated this would total about \$7000.

While legislation, unionism and general employment policies have safeguarded the interests of wage workers, the salaried executive has not been neglected. A recent article in *Fortune Magazine* makes the following statement concerning the dismissal of executives by big business corporations:

Such are the practices of U.S. business that outright firings are rare indeed, and cushioned by euphemisms and a year's salary.⁴

It is rare, indeed, that public employees are given such consideration. It is not easy to discharge employees "at pleasure" anywhere today, except in small private organizations and at the beginning of a new administration. Many informed persons maintain that it is easier to dismiss an employee for cause under the merit system than to dismiss a patronage appointee for inefficiency under the spoils system. In one recent year, a total of forty-six merit system employees in our state were dismissed for cause or resigned upon request. This number does not include a good many who resigned voluntarily when they learned of unsatisfactory service ratings which they knew would lead to dismissal or involuntary resignation. If I were an administrator in a large organization under the merit system, or civil service, I would hesitate to state that I could not fire anyone, for fear that it might be a reflection upon my ability. Most of the difficult cases involving dismissals under the civil service system arise through failure to follow the proper procedure, or lack of preparation of the dismissal charges. A hearing may reveal that an employee needed better supervision, not dismissal, and some of the dismissals you read about, and in which court

cases are involved, are unjustified. Sometimes the dismissal authority is wrong and the dismissed employee is right.

Has Civil Service Fulfilled Its Mission?

Now back to the disappointment of many good citizens in the lack of fulfillment of the promise of civil service and merit system reform. Are they fully aware of the decline in the use of patronage in elections, of job selling and buying, of salary kickbacks and of voluntary campaign contributions? Are they truly aware of the improvements in street cleaning, garbage disposal, fire fighting, communicable disease control, hospital administration, accounting practices, and many other activities too numerous to mention? The civil service system is not responsible for all these improvements, but I dare say that a careful, scientific study would show a very close correlation between efficient administration and a good civil service system. But the civil service system—the merit system—has not fulfilled its full promise. Neither has our country completely fulfilled the patriot's dream of a richer and finer life for all than man has ever known before, though we have succeeded in great part. Those of us in the civil service still have a great mission to perform; we must not only work tirelessly to make our government efficient and economic; we must fight the forces that would corrupt and destroy it, as our colleagues in the military services fight the evil forces which would destroy us. We must be careful not to protect the lazy or inefficient worker, or the grafter or bribe-taker in the civil service, those whose activities reflect unfavorably upon us all, and to the discredit of our government.

Yes, we hold a part of the line of defense of democratic government and its institutions. A break in our part of the line is as perilous as a break in the line held by American industry, labor and agriculture, or the battle line at the front in Korea.

⁴"Well, What Makes the Boss Work?" *Fortune Magazine*, April, 1948, p. 206.

Nebraska's Fogy Increases . . . ARTHUR W. PENDRAY

IN NEBRASKA we tend to believe everything we see in the papers. That's why, in the spring of 1949, we were sure that employment conditions throughout the nation had become stabilized and that salaries would remain at the same level for a considerable period of time.

A number of the employees in Merit System agencies had reached the last step in the six-step pay scale. A number of others would soon be at the top. It was thought that if the morale of these long-time employees was to be maintained, some device should be adopted in order to avoid a "dead end" in so far as pay was concerned.

Accordingly, in a Council meeting on June 1, 1949, the following "Fogy Increase" provision was added to the section on compensation plans:

All employees who have been at the maximum of their salary range since July 1, 1947, or longer, may receive (computed on the current minimum for the classification) a 5% monthly increase rounded to the nearest dollar.

Employees completing 24 months of service at the maximum of their range after July 1, 1949, may also receive a 5% salary increase on the same basis as above.

Subsequent additional increases may be given at two-year intervals, computed on the current minimum, provided such increases shall not exceed 50% of the current minimum base pay.

Soon after the provision was written into the Regulations it became apparent that there would be some difficulty in interpreting it. After an employee had been given a fogy increase and then the compensation plan was adjusted, where would this employee's salary be in relation to the new range? Should it go to an equivalent

spot in the new range, or was this employee's salary forever related to the original range in use when he took off on this fogy financial flight?

At the next meeting of the Council the matter was again argued and the word "current" was inserted so the provision finally read:

Effective July 1, 1949, all employees who have been at the maximum of their *current* salary range since July 1, 1949, or longer, may receive (computed on the current minimum for their classification) a 5% monthly increase rounded to the nearest dollar. Employees completing 24 months of service at the maximum of their range after July 1, 1949, may also receive a 5% salary increase on the same basis as above. Subsequent increases may be given at two-year intervals, computed on the current minimum for the classification, provided such increases shall not exceed 50% of the current minimum base pay.

Insertion of the word "current" made the "fogy increase" useable. It meant that three new steps had been added to the six-step compensation plan in use—steps tacked on like the tail of a kite two years apart, exclusively for those old-timers on the job. If the compensation plan changed, the employee would have a new base from which his pay would be figured. He would have to have a stable compensation plan for a period of two years before he would get the five percent increase, but once he got it, his salary, in being adjusted to the "equivalent step" would also be adjusted to the equivalent fogy step above the new minimum. If in the adjustment, the new scale overlapped his fogy and his salary was not adjusted to the equivalent step, he still got some financial recognition and a chance to start over. Best of all, the Merit System would not be under pressure to misclassify or make special classifications for employees who had run the course of their normal compensation plan.

The idea of a "fogy increase" is not new. In fact, it seems to have been lifted bodily from military practice. Even the name for it was borrowed.

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To date only a few Nebraska Merit System employees have received foggy increases due to the frequent adjustment of compensation plans. The business forecasters in 1949 were not entirely right, you see. Agency personnel officers believe, however, that conditions will some day return to nor-

mal and when they do the foggy increase will be an important means of retaining experienced employees and will serve as a testimonial that Merit System positions do not necessarily become dead-end jobs with respect to salary.

Open the Door, Joe!

IN going through our files, or perhaps we should say archives, the other day, we found a copy of this open letter written by Frank W. Herring, then Executive Director of the American Public Works Association to members of the organization. It was dated October, 1938. There has been some improvement in the last 13 years in the problem the letter discusses, but the problem still exists. The argument Mr. Herring uses as justification for eliminating residence restrictions is so positive and constructive that we thought it deserved another hearing.

Dear Joe:

It's a shame you couldn't get away from your official duties long enough to get to New York to attend the 1938 Public Works Congress. It would have done you a world of good, even if you are only a councilman who doesn't pretend to know much about public works. Not only that, but you'd have enjoyed yourself, too, if that's of any importance.

You'd have enjoyed particularly the opening speech of the convention, by Mayor La Guardia. No, he didn't tell us he'd fix our traffic tickets for us; believe it or not, he talked about public works! And about a phase of it I know you're greatly interested in — a career service in local government for trained men.

Your town has a pretty good civil service system, Joe, brought about to a large extent by your own efforts, which does minimize the effects of politics. But how can a real career service ever be developed if cities like yours, and there are hundreds of them, insist that the local service be reserved for home-town boys? Where does the career come in? Your public works department, I believe, has room for no more than four trained engineers. Suppose you get a likely young fellow and after he has been with you four or five years he is capable of being your city engineer. You've got a good city engineer now, and he looks right healthy. Where's the young buck to go? Most other cities can't employ him, even if they need him badly, because he has been living in your town, and they want to keep their city jobs for their own home-town boys. Unless this lad is satisfied to stay in his present job indefinitely, his "career" is through right there. Maybe your city engineer himself has grown bigger than any job your city government has for him. If a larger city can't use him the only thing for him to do is to leave the public service and go into business. Government has already lost a lot of good talent that way. You can be certain that private business won't turn him down because he lived in your city.

You have said that the local man knows the local situation better and therefore will make a more suitable public servant. Baloney! How much do you suppose the local boys know about the detailed problems of your city's government? They have to learn 99 per cent of it after they get on the job anyway. They might be able to find their way around town easier than an outsider could, but a public works engineer isn't a taxi driver. And anyway, familiarity with your geography can be gained in next to no time by any one this side of feeble mindedness.

Your town's insistence on local residence for public service appointments is pretty short sighted, Joe. You'd better eliminate it from your civil service rules. That would benefit your town, your town's employes, and your potential talent, both local and "foreign," and would be a step toward the advancement of local government generally.—Frank W. Herring.

A Single Salary Schedule for Civil Service Teachers . . . CHARLES J. LILLEY

ONE of the important postwar innovations in many public schools is the single salary schedule for teachers. In California, for instance, more than 90 per cent of the school districts have adopted such a schedule, most of them within the last five years. Since the single salary schedule belies its name and uses multiple ranges, it has been difficult for some public agencies with fixed four- or five-step ranges to match this prevailing practice. However, unless they do adopt some sort of a single salary schedule, they may find the recruitment of teachers increasingly difficult. One large public agency which has recently adopted such a schedule is the state of California. This is a description of the principles of the single salary schedule and the schedule adopted for state civil service teachers in California.

What Is a Single Salary Schedule?

TYPICAL single salary schedules provide that teachers who have a Bachelor's degree receive one salary range; teachers with a Master's degree receive a higher range; and teachers with a Doctor's degree receive a still higher range.

The single salary schedule is based on the theory that teachers with equivalent training and experience should receive equal pay, regardless of whether they teach kindergarten, elementary, junior high, or senior high school classes. Such a schedule, which may have many salary ranges and many salary steps, directly recognizes training and experience as the basis for determining the rate of pay for a position. It has been an important factor in persuading capable and qualified teachers to remain in grade schools where they are urgently needed. With the single salary schedule has come a slowing down of the old routine of the best elementary teachers

transferring to better paying high school positions for which they may be less qualified.

According to some educators, kindergarten and elementary teachers should receive a differential above high school teachers because their students are in the formative years and it is important that the teachers be unusually capable and qualified. The single salary schedule guarantees at least that such teachers receive the same pay they would receive if they taught high school classes.

The single salary schedule of multiple ranges also involves the philosophy that a teacher does a better job if he takes advanced academic training at regular intervals. Advancement from one salary range to another usually is given to provide direct incentive for taking additional training. In fact, in some public school districts a teacher's salary may be reduced if he does not take such training periodically.

There are several strong arguments for and against the theory of the single salary schedule. However desirable or undesirable such a schedule may be, the fact remains that it is becoming prevailing practice in public schools. Because many civil service agencies, including state governments, must compete with public schools for the few teachers who are available, it is evident that such agencies must give serious consideration to adoption of a single salary schedule or a schedule that is at least as attractive to teachers. If civil service agencies do not make some effort to match this prevailing practice, they may find themselves with vacant jobs, or unsatisfactory and less desirable, poorly trained teachers.

The Situation in California

CIVIL service teachers in the California state service are located at institutions of the Department of Corrections (adult prisons), the Youth Authority (juvenile

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schools and camps), and the Department of Mental Hygiene (hospitals for the mentally ill and the mentally deficient). There are approximately 20 high school teachers, 45 elementary teachers, 30 vocational instructors, and several classes of specialized teachers.

Since World War II it has been difficult to attract and hold qualified teachers in these jobs. Sometimes shortages of teachers have made it necessary to curtail the educational program or to obtain full-time or part-time teachers from local school districts. Morale of civil service teachers was seriously affected at some institutions where teachers paid by local school districts received much larger salaries for the same work.

Surveys showed wide differences between salary ranges for civil service teachers in California state institutions and salary ranges for teachers in public schools. Civil service teachers, like practically all state employees, were paid on a standard five-step range based on the approximate interquartile range of public school teachers' rates. State civil service elementary teachers received 5 per cent less than state civil service high school teachers. The majority of public school teachers in California are paid according to single salary schedules which provide for as many as six salary ranges with fourteen steps in each range.

Everyone agreed that something should be done: recruiters, agency representatives, classification and pay technicians, and the teachers. But what? Under the civil service law it was not possible to set more than one salary range for a job classification, and the single salary schedule requires multiple ranges. It was suggested that a five-step range be set above the median rates prevailing in public schools. But this still would not give any pay differential to teachers with superior training and, worst of all, it would give civil service teachers no incentive to take additional training. Teachers who did return to school received the thanks of their agency, but they continued to receive the same amount of pay as the teachers who took no advanced training.

The only solution appeared to be some

sort of an incentive multiple-range schedule. Fortunately, at about this time the state legislature amended the civil service law to provide that more than one salary range could be assigned to a job classification. This authority made possible the single salary schedule for civil service teachers.

The revised law provides: "In classes and positions with unusual conditions or hours of work, or where necessary to meet prevailing rates and practices for comparable services in other public employment and in private business, the [State Personnel] Board may establish more than one salary range or rate or method of compensation within a class."

Even with this law change there still was one legal obstacle in the way of a single salary schedule. It was necessary for the Board to provide within its rules for the establishment of criteria to determine the rate of pay received on appointment to a class with more than one salary range, the step in the range to be received on movement between ranges in the class, and the conditions under which movement could be made from one range to another. The Board adopted the criteria shown below for the civil service teaching classes. These criteria are listed in the pay scales as part of the official rate of pay for each class.

The California State Plan

WITH this authority provided, the staff of the Pay Division of the State Personnel Board developed a program for an incentive plan for teachers in state institutions. The details of the plan were discussed with the departments using the classes and the proposal was then presented to the Personnel Board.

In establishing a single salary schedule for civil service teachers, the Board first agreed to the following basic principles:

1. The plan should be based on the standard five-step ranges used for most civil service employees.
2. The over-all range should approximate the interquartile range of prevailing rates for elementary and high school teachers in California. In order to match these prevailing rates, the Board adopted six five-step salary

ranges with an over-all range of \$268 to \$415 a month.

3. The amount of academic preparation should determine the range at which teachers are hired. Previous experience should not be a factor in determining hiring rate.

4. Within each range, teachers should receive the annual merit increases that other state employees receive.

5. Teachers should progress from range to range (incentive increase) only by completing six semester units of college level professional training. The training must be approved by the employing agency to allow the agency to direct the training toward the individual needs of each teacher and the special program of each agency.

6. The minimum qualifications set forth in the specifications and the regular written and oral examinations should continue to determine whether a teacher qualifies for a particular job classification.

7. Regardless of personal qualifications, no initial appointment should be made above the minimum step of the fourth of the six ranges, in order to offer incentive for future training.

8. To the extent possible, the same ranges should apply both to academic teachers and vocational instructors. (Because of close internal relationships with journeyman craft

classes in the state service, only the upper four of the six ranges are used for vocational instructors.)

In determining the amount of academic preparation that should be required to progress from one salary range to another, the Personnel Board considered the fact that teachers in the Youth Authority and the Department of Mental Hygiene may take a three months' leave with pay once every three years to attend full-time school. Since this allows an average accumulation of six units of college credit once every three years, six units appeared to be an appropriate requirement for progressing from one salary range to another. Some more industrious teachers may obtain credits by taking intensive correspondence or night school courses during the school year, so it was decided to grant only one range increase or incentive increase during any calendar year.

Criteria

SPECIFIC details of the California state plan are shown in the following criteria which were adopted as a part of the pay scales:

SALARY RANGES FOR CIVIL SERVICE TEACHERS

Range					
A	\$268	\$281	\$295	\$310	\$325
B	281	295	310	325	341
C	295	310	325	341	358
D	310	325	341	358	376
E	325	341	358	376	395
F	341	358	376	395	415

CRITERIA FOR DETERMINING SALARY RANGES FOR CIVIL SERVICE TEACHERS

A. Entrance Rate

When an employee enters State service in a teaching class, he shall be appointed to the first step of the range appropriate in terms of the following criteria. *NOTE:* These are not minimum qualifications. They are to be used only for determining appointment salary or hiring rate. The minimum qualifications as set forth in the specification determine eligibility for the class of position.

Range

Academic Teachers

Vocational Teachers

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>A Emergency or special credential, without a Bachelor's degree.</p> <p>B Bachelor's degree or regular Elementary, Junior High, or Kindergarten-Primary Credential.</p> <p>C Bachelor's degree or regular Elementary, Junior High, or Kindergarten-Primary Credential; <i>plus</i> 12 upper division or graduate units which were not counted toward degree or which were taken subsequent to obtaining credential.</p> | <p>Three years' experience as journeyman craftsman.</p> |
|---|---|

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>D Bachelor's degree or regular Elementary, Junior High, or Kindergarten-Primary Credential; <i>plus</i> 24 upper division or graduate units which were not counted toward degree or which were taken subsequent to obtaining credential. Or regular General Secondary Credential.</p> | <p>Qualification for special Secondary Vocational Class A Credential in Trade and Industrial and Public Service Education.</p> |
|--|--|

Prior teaching experience shall not affect the entrance rate. No initial appointment shall be made above the minimum for Range D.

B. Present Employees

Persons employed at the time the schedule goes into effect shall continue to receive at least the same rate and range of pay, provided that their salary shall be increased to the corresponding step of the highest range for which they meet the prescribed criteria under "A" above. No incumbent shall receive more than the appropriate step in Range D.

C. Incentive Increases

When a teacher receiving less than Range F completes at least six units in college level courses approved by his department and taken after appointment, or after this schedule becomes effective, he shall be entitled to advance to the corresponding step in the next higher salary range for the class. Such an advance shall be known as an "incentive increase." The employee shall retain his same anniversary date. No employee shall receive more than one incentive increase in any calendar year.

Supervisors

THE single salary schedule and the criteria above apply only to nonsupervisory teacher classes in the California state service. School supervisors and administrators continue to receive standard five-step salary ranges, which are based on prevailing rates for public school supervisors and administrators and on internal relationships in the various state agencies concerned.

Conclusions

THIS single salary schedule for civil service teachers in California has been in effect

for only a short time. It has not been possible to evaluate it completely. The possible benefits are many. If it helps to stabilize the recruiting of teachers, and if it helps to improve the skills of the teachers already in the state service, it will prove worth while.

Meanwhile, the State Personnel Board is studying other possible applications of the multiple salary ranges based on personal qualifications. One likely development is the payment of salary differentials to doctors who have completed specialized training.

Campaign Is Started in Britain for Distinctive Dress for Civil Servants

LONDON.—Horace Hambling, who started a crusade last year for a ban on stage and radio jokes about civil servants, wants all government employees to wear a uniform.

In submitting his proposal to the Civil Service Clerical Association, Mr. Hambling declared civil servants had just as valid a claim to distinctive dress as soldiers, sailors, and airmen.

He suggested a severely cut navy blue uniform, similar to a bank messenger's, with collar and tie, as well as shoulder insignia to denote rank. Women employees would wear a tunic and skirt with matching beret.

"After all, with the complaints and criticism we get from the public we are just as much heroes as the armed forces," Mr. Hambling said.

Mr. Hambling hopes to have greater success with his latest proposal than with the campaign to make the civil service jokeproof, which fizzled out.—

A Method for Evaluating Merit System

Recruitment and Selection L. L. FRIEDLAND and E. T. RANEY

MANY surveys and studies of public personnel systems have been or will continue to be made. Some shed light upon the general personnel problems of the public jurisdiction. Others furnish more specific information as to special aspects of public personnel policies and activities. Few measurement devices have as yet developed out of the growing number of appraisals being completed. Public officials, especially those involved with the personnel function should welcome the introduction of additional measuring techniques which can lend greater objectivity to administrative, legislative, or public appraisal. Our purpose then is to suggest some measuring techniques for the appraisal of merit system administration within the broad objectives of a public personnel program. As the full scope of public personnel administration cannot be encompassed in this article, the appraisal techniques presented deal primarily with an element basic to the career service system, the recruitment policy.

The Personnel Problem in Public Jurisdictions

THE BASIC problems of personnel administration confronting public jurisdictions are essentially similar at all levels of government. It is now generally recognized that merit and fitness should govern the recruitment, selection, and appointment of individuals to the public service. The civil service movement historically sought to wipe out the effects of favoritism and influence in rewarding specially favored persons with jobs in the public service.

The application of the merit principle by civil service system adherents was an

attempt to go beyond the first efforts at combating political and personal influence in the recruitment of public personnel. Merit provisions do not depend upon any special form of organization to be successfully carried out. Instead, the emphasis is on method, procedure, and the provisions for an effective tool of management. If the mechanics of personnel administration were all that needed emphasis, the task of developing objective measurement devices would not be too difficult.

As in other aspects of public management, the yardsticks of measurement are not to be found in the rules, regulations, or orders issued by the responsible bodies. Instead, it is necessary to look to the actual operating facts and data. Such matters as: number and type of appointments; frequency, character and validation of the examining process; turnover ratios; criteria for promotion; are but a few of the mechanics of effective personnel administration.

Just as important however, are such issues as: the criteria for effective and positive relationships within the governmental structure between the personnel agency, the executive office, the operating agencies, and the legislative bodies; the development of leadership through a career service program, so sadly lacking in the public service at all levels; and the full assumption of personnel responsibility by operating officials, in keeping with the bases for merit system operation.

The central thesis of all civil service systems based on the merit principle is the rejection of personal influence as the basis for the recruitment and selection of governmental personnel. What is needed first therefore, is to show that the effects of personal influence have not been allowed to interfere unduly with this premise. While it is generally accepted that there is much more to effective public personnel administration, confidence is engendered

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in the system to both employees and the public alike, if objective means are at hand to assure that personal influence in the selection process has been eliminated.

The proposed criteria presented here are concerned primarily with the effectiveness and objectivity of civil service administration by central personnel officials as it pertains to the recruitment and selection policy. The measurement devices described have been found useful in the appraisal of a large state personnel system. In fact, it was necessary to develop these criteria while the survey was in progress.

No absolute norms were established, and the measures themselves are relative.

Appraisal Methods

IN EFFECT, it is proposed that civil service agencies make an annual public accounting. A minimum report should include the following activities.

1. The number of appointments during the current year and the length of time it has taken to process certification.
 - a. A provisional appointment is one not certified as of the day of appointment.
 - b. Appointments should be reported in terms of the length of time it has taken after appointment to certify the appointee either from a list or through a qualifying examination.
 - c. The data may be as in Table I.

TABLE I

[illegible]

Nevertheless, comparisons between public jurisdictions, within the same jurisdiction over a period of years, and with private industry will be helpful to the public officials and the public. The comprehensiveness of the personnel program can be measured in statistical terms considered in this light, if particular aspects of personnel practices important to the over-all picture are analyzed.

- d. These data may also be reported by classification level.
- e. These data should be reported for new and promotional appointments.
2. The number of appointments carried over from previous years which were certified during the current year or are not yet certified.
- a. These data may be reported as in Table II.

TABLE II

[illegible]

8. The number of promotional appointments made during current year.

a. These data may be reported as in Table VI.

specifications? Are the personnel who are promoted qualified through training and experience or through a civil service procedure of allowing them credit for service?

TABLE VI

Name of Appointee	Information on Appointee				
	Level Hired In	Present Level Certified	Number of Promotions	Length of Service	Present Provisional Level

Justification for Selection of Proposed Criteria

IF A civil service agency is given the responsibility for control over the appointments to government service jobs, then it should be obligated to report to the citizens of their jurisdiction the manner in which the task has been carried out. The report should contain information that will enable a citizen to decide for himself how well the tasks of civil service have been accomplished. These are the questions the report should answer.

Are qualified personnel selected on a merit basis or can an individual secure appointment through questionable expedients and remain on the payroll even though he may not be qualified; or at least not the most qualified available candidate? In other words, what are the chances that once a provisional appointment is obtained, the individual will be qualified or transferred or promoted, which in essence is a distortion of the merit principle. How few provisional appointees are disqualified by virtue of failure to pass examinations and subsequently removed from the state payroll at the instigation of the civil service agency? Does the civil service remove them from the payroll at once or does it approve new appointments, i.e., transfer or even promotion or changes in job

Do we have clerks with seniority gradually moving into the technical and professional jobs in agencies, their only training and experience civil service credit given for being on a job long enough to qualify for it? If the facts indicate that to get a job in the civil service one need only secure some form of provisional appointment, then civil service is simply substituting subjective individual preferences for the spoils system, which it set out to eradicate.

Summary

IF SUCCESSFUL operation of public personnel programs based on merit principles implies that favoritism is to be excluded and objective criteria of selection are to be employed, the appraisal methods set forth in this article should be of value. Progressive civil service jurisdictions utilize many of these measures for self-examination. The importance to be attached to the findings depends on the concern with which they are received by the public and government officials. Criteria for other important aspects of the personnel program, such as the testing process, are also being developed. Together they can make for enlightening reports to the public, which, in turn, can engender fuller understanding and acceptance of a public career service based upon merit.

Evaluating Merit System Recruitment and Selection: A Critique EDWIN J. CROCKIN

A FACT, albeit objective and descriptive, is not necessarily an evaluation. The pattern suggested by Drs. Friedland and Raney to evaluate recruitment and selection in a civil service system provides a limited description but not an appraisal.

The comments which follow are critical. However, they are directed only at what are believed to be over-drawn conclusions. The aim of the proposed measurement device—development of additional means for evaluating public services—is a most desirable one. One must consider the proposal made here, however, as an hypothesis only, since no validating information is offered. Although reference is made to the development and application of the method in conjunction with a specific survey there is in the brief summary given no description of any experience with the measure. This is a disappointing omission. Full consideration of a new method in so desirable a field deserves a complete “working test.” As a consequence, a critique of the hypothesis must take the form of observations of practical considerations which seemingly have been overlooked and for which no margin has been provided.

As a Measure of Personal Influence

IT HAS been proposed that the number and length of provisional appointments (1) will provide the public with confidence that personal influence does not negate the merit principle or, presumably, (2) will demonstrate that such confidence is not warranted and that corrective action should be taken. The extent of use of provisional appointments which should lead to one feeling or the other is left for future discovery.

Perhaps the desired result could be achieved in a laboratory-defined situation in which all factors are known and all variables controlled. Such conditions,

however, are not exactly characteristic of an administrative organization. The differences between personnel systems, as well as the different situations in which a given system operates from day to day, reduces the area within which the proposed measure could have practical application. Some examples may point up this observation.

In *A*, examinations for certain classes of positions were formerly held four times a year. Response was fair, but applicants at two of the times appeared to be those unable to hold other jobs and proved to be less desirable on the job than those applying on the alternate dates directly from school. Yet, on the latter dates, because vacancies were fewer, some good eligibles could not be given appointments immediately following the examination. Within a few weeks they had accepted other employment. *A* decided to reduce the examination dates to twice a year. Provisional appointments increased. Probation separations decreased. Examination costs decreased. Did these results indicate that personal influence had increased as a factor in recruitment and selection? Not necessarily.

In *B*, turnover in certain hospital organization classes was disheartening. Examinations were given quarterly but could not keep up with the departures. Fund and staff limitations prevented holding more frequent assembled examinations. Provisional appointments were numerous because the positions had to be filled to maintain hospital service. Statutory authority was secured to allow continuous, unassembled examinations administered by the hospital personnel office and audited by the central personnel office. Provisional appointments dropped. Does the provisional appointment record indicate that influence appointments dropped? Was the change to an open register really a means of easing appointments through influence? Suppose the turnover had been

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in classes of positions which could have remained unfilled between periodic examinations, hence with no provisional appointments?

In C, the classification program has lagged. The staff is concentrating on the task of bringing it up to date. Turnover is moderate, but frequent examinations are impractical because of the staff emphasis and because the base for the examination program is undergoing change. Provisional appointments look numerous. Need there be absence of application of merit principles?

In D, turnover has increased in many classes. The examining staff is working at its peak and is not likely to be increased. Choosing the classes for which examinations are to be given, it selects more varied and more difficult (examination-wise) ones only because they happen to be career entrances. In some of the lesser-skilled classes where separations are more numerous, provisionals build up.

These may appear to be specially drawn cases, nontypical to prove a point. Granted they are hypothetical, what personnel administrator will say they are not in some degree typical of the past ten years? They emphasize the fact that large numbers of provisional appointments may be a signal for further inquiry, but they are not a measure. Further, they call for investigation not necessarily as an indication of personal influence but as possible indicators of examination program faults, salary scale problems, classification difficulties, poor administrative judgment, creaks somewhere in the system, or just first-rate adaptation to a worrisome situation.

As a Measure of Recruitment and Selection

THE TASTE of a meal is its test. The test of a system of recruitment and selection is the success with which it attracts and selects personnel of appropriate abilities. It is generally accepted that a system which ignores influence in favor of more objective selection methods will have a better chance of finding and keeping good personnel. But it does not follow that a system which is void of influence-actions will necessarily provide high caliber personnel.

As a measure for appraising recruitment and selection, this proposal errs in taking one potential flaw out of its proper perspective. It assumes that the personnel system may break down only because of a deliberate attempt to circumvent it. In some jurisdictions, and in some periods, this may well deserve the public's primary attention. However, there is reason to believe that deliberate sabotage of personnel ideals is often not the most costly or the most difficult fault to correct. The greater problem is the inertia of honestly selected individuals in the public's employment; the inertia of custom in the public service; the inertia of vested interests, both inside and outside the public service; the rigidity of systems which seek to prevent faults and in fact prevent initiative; and the assignment of responsibility but the withholding of corresponding authority. All of these are as apt to be found in the personnel system administration as elsewhere in government. Reports of the Hoover Commission and of the "Little Hoover" commissions will bear witness.

If a measure is to be found for the recruitment function, it will be necessary to go far beyond the finding of the effect of personal influence. An elementary requirement is an appraisal of the methods for securing applicants, the basic building material for an organization. Are applicants found by complying with a statutory minimum? Perhaps an announcement is published in two newspapers in the vicinity of the obituary columns and a copy tacked on the courthouse bulletin board between "Wanted by the F.B.I." notices and Selective Service proclamations. Perhaps a two-page notice in six-point type is sent to the president of the state's colleges. Unsolicited mail applications are acknowledged with a suggestion that the sender read the papers to learn when an examination will be given. These practices, and worse, may well be found in a jurisdiction with no provisional appointments—and few good employees. Possibly a neighboring jurisdiction with a number of provisional appointments will be beating the bushes for the best, and delaying its examinations until the best can be found.

Will it not be necessary also to see how applicant qualifications are evaluated and to take a long and careful look at the examination program itself? Are the examinations taken from a "How to Get a Civil Service Job" booklet? Is any effort being made to learn if examinations are providing personnel who are successful on the job? What, by the way, is the percentage of probationers dropped? Is the number low because the examinations are good, or because the supervisors need "somebody"?

As a Measure of Public Usefulness

AT THE risk of appearing a cavalier, one last objection to the proposal is made. This concerns the public's reaction to administration of government and the public's use of evaluation information. It would be pleasant (in a sense) to regard a public objectively contemplating governmental operations, reading interim and annual reports with gusto, and reviewing administrative techniques knowingly. Unfortunate or not, as the case may be, this is not the public which is composed of our adult or even our voting population.

Perhaps there are jurisdictions where publication of comparative data on provisional appointments would arouse a general feeling of confidence or of concern. Whether or not this is true is a matter of opinion. It is the opinion of the writer that it is not true. The public's appraisal of public service—and especially the personnel system—is more apt to be formed by day-to-day occurrences rather personal in nature. Is the garbage collected on time? Does the tax assessor act as though he knows he works for me, citizen? Why didn't Cousin Ambrose get a job at the City Hall after taking that examination? Why are so many prisoners escaping? Such questions as these may not provide valid or reliable test items, but they are frequently the test applied to administration.

Statistics are necessary to the administrator and to the student. They must be available to the public. But let's not kid ourselves. The public makes up its mind by appraising the results it sees, not by studying statistics.

Summary

PUBLIC personnel administration in the United States is in a mugwump status. It began as a system to "keep the rascals out." It is developing to the point of realization that some become rascals after they have gotten in, and that the major problems are to entice the best into service, to winnow out the mistakes, to insure maximum return from the remainder, and to keep them from leaving in undue numbers.

It is not enough to measure for the negative quantities, since the absence of one flaw by no means insures the absence of others. Perhaps there is a value in a check list of "don'ts" on the assumption that if nothing patently wrong is done only the right remains. It would seem, though, that search for means of appraising a public personnel system lies in (1) establishing its ultimate purpose; (2) fixing the steps, or procedures, necessary to attain that purpose; (3) fixing for each step the contribution it rightfully should make to the ultimate purposes; and (4) determining the extent to which each step succeeds in its own purpose. The appraisal must take account of both place and time. Place is important because administration must have a tailor-made fit and not a cloak taken from a factory pattern; folks in this country like to have their governments adapted to their customs and are allergic and non-receptive to imposed forms. Time is important because administration must shift its efforts to meet today's problems and to anticipate tomorrow's; it must learn from yesterday but not live in it.

Public personnel systems by and large are still oriented to the "rascal-exclusion" primary purpose. (So, in outlook, are some personnel administrators.) Consequently, those who regard the purpose of a personnel system as getting, utilizing, and keeping only the best personnel often must work within a framework built to contain those with less desirable aims. This will require, in an appraisal of a system, some judgment as to the restraints on success laid on by the system and those laid on by the administration of it.

PERSONNEL OPINIONS

Editor's Note

• As a special feature for this issue of *Public Personnel Review*, we have invited five governors to give us their views on public personnel administration as seen by the chief executive of a state. To each of them we posed the question:

In your capacity as the chief executive, what do you believe are the essentials of an effective state personnel program?

Their replies were as follows:

WALTER J. KOHLER, JR., Governor of Wisconsin.

I will say, at the outset, that the achievement of an effective personnel program in the state of Wisconsin is made easier by the complete absence of political favoritism in the procurement of personnel. Wisconsin's successful effort in this regard was made almost half a century ago. Since then the responsibility of department heads to choose employees on the basis of ability alone has never been seriously questioned.

Having noted the establishment and acceptance of the merit system principle in Wisconsin, we can begin to cite factors which, in my opinion, are essential to a forward-looking personnel program. The importance of a personnel program which is positive and progressive in nature cannot be overemphasized. A program which looks to the past instead of the future is certain to be ineffective.

Any good personnel program must be able to do the following: (1) Attract sufficient numbers of capable people for all vacancies; (2) develop positive techniques of examination to insure that final selection is made from the best qualified applicants; (3) get critical positions filled promptly with competent people; (4) convince the better employees and potential applicants that a career in the state service is a wise choice; (5) detect and remove all unsatisfactory personnel at the earliest opportunity.

The recruitment and career service phases of an effective personnel program are well known to students and practitioners of public

administration. We in Wisconsin place heavy emphasis on both factors as a part of our program. My position on these integral parts of the state personnel program became known to Wisconsin citizens when I actively supported an upward revision of all salaries in the classified service. I maintain that without the prospect of an attractive initial salary, combined with the opportunity to move upward in the pay scale, qualified personnel will refuse to associate themselves with the state service. This applies to all levels of employment and especially to the top management level. In my opinion, scrimping on the salaries of top-level management has cost state government millions of dollars through stagnant and inefficient administration. Salaries reasonably near those for like positions in industry are essential for the development of satisfactory recruitment and the acceptance of the career service philosophy.

The development of better examination techniques is another matter of extreme importance if, perhaps, less easily resolved. My faith in the written examination as a precise means of measurement has never been the same since I finished my formal schooling. It is my feeling that we must continually search for more positive and more flexible means of identifying the desirable qualities in job applicants.

When I say that a good personnel program must be able to get critical positions filled promptly I am thinking of the unfortunate department head who suddenly finds a key position vacant with no ready substitute and no established list of applicants available. In order to safeguard the merit system he must proceed according to Wisconsin law and regulations based on that law. The time lag that necessarily occurs between the initial request for certification and the certifying of persons to the position is alarming. In many instances the department is completely unable to perform a vital function until a competent person is hired. The delay is often so great that persons certified have been unable to wait for announcement of examination results and have taken positions elsewhere.

This problem is universal to all governmental organizations that have abandoned the spoils system. The dilemma must be resolved within the framework of the merit system

through the development of more flexible procurement procedures.

An effective personnel program must also offer state administrative officials a simple removal procedure under a merit system such as we have in Wisconsin. In our state we are re-emphasizing the fact that a civil service system with the inevitable "permanent status" does not mean the forced retention of employees who are unable to perform their jobs satisfactorily. Through the use of openly arrived at employee performance reports based on equitable work standards, we hope to develop a fair and expeditious means of culling the deadwood from state employ.

Brevity requires that I do not discuss such things as in-service training programs, transfers across departmental lines, promotion from within, and a host of other techniques which help to make up this "positive personnel program" about which I have written. Essentially I have tried to point out the most vital elements of such a program. My parting shot is intended as a reminder to all of us: *Whatever the component parts of a state personnel program may be, never forget to respect the fundamental dignity of the individuals with which we deal.* Any program can go a long way on that alone.

ARTHUR B. LANGLEIE, Governor of Washington.

There has long been a need for an effective modern personnel program based upon the principle that the best qualified personnel should serve the state and gain advancement through open competitive examination.

During each of my two terms as Governor I have introduced legislation to provide the state with a modern merit system of personnel administration.

Prior to the 1951 Washington State Legislature, I directed that a complete and impartial review be conducted into the operation and organization of personnel functions and activities of the various Departments, Boards, and Commissions under the Executive Branch. Four separate merit systems were then in operation. Each derived its authority from a different source and administered its own rules. But, despite this multiplicity of systems, the majority of state employees were not covered by any type of merit system.

A nationally recognized firm of specialists in public personnel management was instructed to study all the existing Washington state personnel merit systems and to recommend objective measures designed to improve the quality and standards of state personnel ad-

ministration. Briefly, this study contained the following observation:

1. The prestige of the state service was at a low ebb and incentives had not been established to provide the best qualified state personnel.
2. The turnover was exceedingly high and not conducive to the building of a strong state career service.
3. The cost of the four separate merit system administrations, plus independent personnel systems, was excessive.
4. Supervisors were hesitant to remove unsatisfactory employees due to cumbersome procedures which existed in some of the departmental merit systems.
5. General management improvement activities had not been initiated.
6. Training programs were not being planned for the career service employee.
7. Policies covering efficiency rating, reduction in force, and the privilege to organize were dated and in need of change.

After final studies were completed, legislation was drafted, in cooperation and with full support of organized employees, to provide for a state-wide merit system of departmental personnel administration under centralized control and supervision.

This proposed merit system law, which was introduced by "Executive Request," contained what I believe to be the "essentials of an effective state personnel program."

The bill which was offered for consideration contained some new features which should have made it acceptable to anyone interested in improved public service.

The proposed law created a State Personnel Department to be headed by a Director of Personnel appointed by the Governor after competitive examination. The Personnel Department also included a three-member Personnel Board, appointed by the Governor for six-year staggered terms, with the advice and consent of the state Senate.

The measure included practically all state employment except for certain key policy makers, their principal assistants, teachers of state educational institutions, and employees of the legislature and of the judiciary.

In general, the law provided only the broad policies of modern personnel, leaving details of management to the rule making authority of the Board. It required that examinations be held for all classes on an open continuous basis so that the needs of service could always be promptly accomplished. The Board was not restricted in the number of eligibles to be certi-

fied for each vacancy. This latitude was provided to add flexibility so that each vacant position could be filled with qualified and suitable employees.

Tenure of employees was protected but the procedure for dismissing unsatisfactory employees was simplified. This feature was specifically designed to insure that the merit system would not protect the incompetent employee.

Appeal privileges were defined and authority was granted for employees to organize and consult with top state management.

Copies of this proposed bill were circulated and carefully reviewed by leaders of management and labor, as well as recognized personnel administrators. In spite of the universally favorable comments and the approval by the state Senate, the bill was considered as a partisan measure and died in the state House of Representatives.

In so far as legally possible, I have by Executive Order established the major provisions of this proposed bill as standard personnel operating procedure in all Departments, Boards, and Commissions under my jurisdiction. Administration is delegated to a Committee on Standards, which is directly responsible to the Governor.

I cannot believe that the Legislature of the State of Washington will long overlook the economy and advisability of an effective state merit system law.

SID McMATH, Governor of Arkansas.

The Arkansas state government does not have a department or office to administer any program of central personnel administration for its many agencies and institutions, with the exception of those departments that are state-federal in management and operation. I presented to the 1951 General Assembly a bill to establish a State Personnel Office for the purpose of securing the benefits of a comprehensive, modern system of personnel administration based on merit principles and scientific methods governing the appointment, promotion, transfer, lay-off, removal, and discipline of the thousands of state employees. Members of my staff had been working on the problem of personnel administration for more than a year and this bill was the result of their study and efforts. The bill had the full approval of the Arkansas Committee on Reorganization of the State Government. However, it failed to pass one branch of the Legislature and we do not have any central personnel office to carry out the functions of personnel administration.

I am convinced that a central personnel

office is the prime essential of an effective state personnel program. I believe that the operation of the Central Personnel Office should be under the administrative leadership of a Director of Personnel, one who is trained in the techniques of personnel administration. In order to secure effective public interest and support in the improvement and development of personnel administration in the state service, I favor the appointment of a five-member State Personnel Board on a staggered-term basis. It is my opinion that the State Personnel Board should act primarily in an advisory capacity in the promulgation and approval of policies, rules, and regulations for the administration of the personnel program.

Following are seven major objectives stated in our proposed bill which I believe are the essentials of an effective state personnel program. Wherever I have added any comment to the statements contained in the legislative bill such comment is in parentheses.

1. "To develop a written statement of personnel policy in language understandable to every one. An employee is entitled to know the terms and conditions of his employment, but he should also know what is expected of him."

(For this purpose we prepared a Personnel Manual which covers all policies and procedures in the operation of a personnel program, including recruitment, selection, placement, veterans preference, promotions, demotions, terminations, retirement, transfers, leaves of absence, service ratings, attendance and leave regulations, etc.)

2. "To establish and operate for the departments served a modern and comprehensive system of personnel administration governing the recruitment, selection, placement, promotion, transfer, discipline, and termination of their employees."

3. "To promote and increase economy and efficiency in the departments served through a fuller utilization of each employee's capabilities by improved methods of personnel administration."

(I believe that service ratings and in-service training are effective instruments in this respect. An employee is entitled to "know where he stands" by means of a service rating that gives a fair evaluation of the quality and quantity of work performed and such other characteristics as will measure his or her value in the state's service. Also, a good in-service training program can improve both the employee's morale and performance on the job.)

4. "To identify every job and, on the basis

of duties and responsibilities, to establish a system of job classification for purposes of recruitment, promotion, training, and the establishing of equitable pay rates."

(Arkansas state government has a long way to go in working out this problem. I agree with our Committee on Reorganization of the State Government that this should have "first priority" in personnel administration. A classification-pay plan is very necessary for good management in an enterprise as large as the state government.)

5. "To fill every job with competent employees through practical tests of ability and qualification."

(I believe in the use of tests as one of the means of measuring a person's ability and fitness, provided the tests are practical and relate to material which fairly tests the relative capacity and fitness of applicants to perform the duties of the positions which they seek.)

6. "To keep every job filled with a satisfied employee through establishing good working conditions, providing incentives for superior accomplishment, and opportunities for training and advancement."

7. "To develop a program of employee retirement which will further make the state's service attractive as a career."

DENNIS J. ROBERTS, Governor of Rhode Island.

The successful operation of a state government under modern conditions calls for the services of many employees, each of whom must possess the particular skills required for satisfactory performance in the particular position to which he or she is assigned. The number of persons and the degree of skill required are determined, in large measure, by the laws enacted by the legislative branch. These laws, in turn, are usually the result of demands by the taxpayer, the real proprietor of the business, for services and protection.

As required by these laws, we find departments and divisions established to render particular services or protections. A few examples will serve to illustrate:—

To protect the health of the public it is necessary that qualified state employees pass upon the qualifications of doctors, dentists, nurses, and other professional people to practice their professions; to license and inspect the places of business of barbers, hairdressers, purveyors of drugs, food and drink, clothing, upholstery and bedding and many other things used by the people of the state.

Experts must frequently inspect the many industrial establishments within the state to

assure safe operation of boilers, elevators, and machines. Others must inspect the equipment and operation of the public utilities. Operators of motor vehicles and the equipment operated must be regulated to assure the maximum degree of safety to rider, pedestrian, and property.

The maintaining of highways and the construction of new roads and bridges call for experts in these fields.

Supervision of education and the operation of educational institutions require the services of persons trained in these important professions.

The operation of hospitals, penal and correctional institutions and provision of assistance to the sick, aged, and infirm require many professional and skilled employees. Others are required to conduct the public assistance and related welfare programs and to provide the services required in the operation of the employment service and insurance programs.

These are but a few of the many services and protections required by law. Others include the operation, maintenance, and supervision of airports; supervision and regulation of insurance companies; regulation of boxing and athletic activities; conservation and protection of fish and game; development of agriculture; protection at beaches, lakes, rivers and ponds; protection of forests and parks; assurance of supply of safe drinking water and milk; and so on.

It is obvious that the executive branch must establish and operate efficient financial controls and provide for the collection of the taxes which provide the funds which make all of these services possible. Here, again, are needed the services of experts in order that taxes be held to a minimum consistent with efficient operation and that budgeting, research, and financial controls protect the taxpayer from unwise expenditure of the tax monies.

All of these functions require the services of employees. In order to secure and retain qualified employees and to deal fairly and effectively with the problems which are an integral part of the relationships resulting from these employments, it is necessary to establish and maintain a program.

Some jurisdictions have, in effect, two separate personnel programs, one for the classified group; the other for the unclassified group. Rhode Island has recently established a Department of Administration within which are centralized all of the staff functions of the state. Among the chief responsibilities of this

department are: the preparation and administration of the budget; purchasing; accounting and control; operation and maintenance of state buildings and property; purchase and control of state-owned motor vehicles; collection of taxes and development of tax systems; and "the operation of a merit system of personnel administration in connection with the conditions of employment in all state departments and agencies within the classified service." In addition, the Division of Personnel is charged with development of a pay plan for employees in the unclassified service.

The Division of Personnel is one of the divisions of the new department, headed by a Personnel Administrator selected under the merit system and whose position is within the classified service. He reports directly to the Director of Administration who is responsible to the Governor.

The Civil Service Commission becomes the Personnel Appeal Board and its duties are limited to the hearing of appeals on grievances and disciplinary actions and recommendations to the Governor after such hearings.

All other functions of the Civil Service Commission are transferred to the Director of Administration and Personnel Administrator, thus providing for more prompt action in administrative matters. Appeals to the Personnel Appeal Board on matters of classification, salary, examination, and administrative actions other than grievances or discipline must follow a preliminary hearing before the Director of Administration.

I trust the foregoing will serve to illustrate the Rhode Island approach to the establishment and continuance of an effective personnel program. Of course, from time to time, it may be necessary to enact additional legislation in amendment of existing statutes in order to keep the process current. As to the specific question with regard to the essential elements of an effective personnel program, it is my belief that the program is, first of all, dependent upon three major essentials:

1. A sincere desire and determination on the part of the taxpayers and their representatives, both elective and appointive, to secure the best possible government at the lowest cost consistent therewith.
2. Statutory authority through which the objectives may be realized.
3. The organization and continued operation of the program in such manner that qualified employees are obtained and retained in the state service.

There are two major divisions of employees

within the civil service of the state, the classified and the unclassified. Except for certain statutory differences with regard to selection and tenure, the over-all personnel program should apply to both groups.

It seems to me that, the first two essentials having been met, the third includes many other essentials which may be somewhat arbitrarily grouped as follows:

1. Those essentials necessary to obtain qualified employees.
2. Those essentials necessary to retain them.
3. Those essentials necessary for orderly operation and discipline.

Within the first group I would include the classification plan, the recruiting methods, and the selection processes. For the classified section there would be included the examination, certification and appointment processes established by law. The entrance salary is also an important consideration and opportunity for advancement upon qualification therefor, must also be included.

Within the second grouping I would include conditions of service, hours of work, opportunity for salary increase and promotion, the so-called fringe benefits, classification plan and salary changes, opportunity to present ideas and suggestions, training programs, retirement system, adjustment of complaints, and such other factors as affect the decision to leave or to remain in the state employ.

Within the third grouping I would include the organization of the Personnel Division, the roster and records, the procedures and methods governing personnel actions, certification of payrolls, and so on. Reporting devices are essential to permit proper control over leaves of absence, vacation and sick leaves, unauthorized absenteeism and tardiness and other matters. There must always remain with the appointing authority the necessary control over employees in cases where there are rule infractions so that proper disciplinary action may be taken, and to permit separation of unsatisfactory employees. Opportunity for hearing upon appeal would also fall into this group.

Some of these would overlap into more than one of the arbitrary groupings. There are many others which I have failed to include, but their absence should not be taken as an indication that they are less important than those cited.

Personnel administration is a complex and increasingly important branch of government. We are beginning to become aware of its importance and are discovering some of the

answers to the problems which arise. We, who are in executive positions, appreciate the contributions already made by the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada and look to your organization for even greater contributions in the future.

ADLAI E. STEVENSON, Governor of Illinois.

In recent years the trend in form of public personnel agencies has been away from a three-, five-, or seven-member board or commission to a single administrator. A recent summary of "Little Hoover" Commission reports in the *Public Personnel Review* confirms this trend. Though a number of agencies still retain their three-member boards to function principally as appellate or investigatory bodies, there is a movement to delegate authority for administration to a director or an executive officer.

We have not yet achieved a Department of Personnel under a single director, but we do have as president and executive officer of the Illinois Civil Service Commission, a career employee with twenty years of experience in the agency. Recent legislation more clearly defines the duties of the executive officer, delegating to her responsibility for administrative functions, and retaining for the Commission only policy formulation, rule-making powers, and appellate and investigatory functions.

Another trend is to replace the "police" functions of a personnel agency with service functions—to help operating departments obtain, develop, and retain the best employees available. Illinois was one of the first states to establish a merit agency, and at that time the policing function was widely accepted. Because of its forty-six years of operation under the original Act, our Civil Service Commission has found it difficult to replace this police concept with the service concept in the minds of operating agencies, state employees, and the public at large. For some years, however, our Civil Service Commission has emphasized its service functions and is conducting informational and training programs to gain the confidence of the operating agencies and the public. In order to operate effectively as a service agency, civil service must work closely with the administration and the operating agencies. Our present Commission has given the Chief Executive excellent cooperation and has made every effort to work with the operating agencies. To insure similar cooperation for future Commissions, however, I have a few suggestions to make.

In line with this "service" ideal, these

"Little Hoover" Commission reports emphasize the need for close cooperation between the Chief Executive and the personnel agency. A number of them advocate delegating to the Governor responsibility for appointing the personnel director, usually with standards prescribed for determining the technical competence of candidates nominated for appointment. They also recommend the establishment of personnel councils, consisting of representatives of the Chief Executive, the personnel agency, and the operating department to achieve better coordination in personnel matters. I intend to establish a personnel council to obtain more effective cooperation in selecting and developing personnel and closer coordination of personnel and other staff and service functions.

The Legislature, too, is cooperating to help civil service become a more effective service agency. The 67th General Assembly passed legislation giving the Civil Service Commission more flexibility in its operation so that it can better serve the other state agencies. It can now conduct continuous examinations for such hard-to-get classifications as Hospital Attendants, Stenographers, Nurses, and Physicians, and can certify more than three eligibles where it believes that more than three eligibles will be needed in order to fill a vacancy.

The Commission's opportunity to help operating departments develop and more fully utilize the abilities of their employees is increased by its authority to conduct training. Although Illinois was one of the first states to establish a state-wide training program, the legality of that program was challenged so often that it became necessary to clarify by legislation the Commission's authority to continue this most important phase of personnel administration. An employee development program, sponsored jointly by the Commission and the operating agencies, will include not only training but also upgrading through a clearly defined promotional system and implemented by a work performance rating system. It also will include an employee counseling service and an employer-employee relations program that will enlist the cooperation of all state employees in obtaining maximum efficiency through improved morale, better working conditions, closer cooperation, and full utilization of knowledge and skills.

To speed up a number of its operations, the Commission has installed office machine equipment. This equipment enables the Commission to gather and maintain up-to-date information on all state employees. Such an inventory as-

sists not only the Chief Executive and the personnel agency but also the various operating departments. It will also help fiscal agencies plan future programs and estimate budget needs for personal services.

Several states are establishing citizen's advisory committees to serve as liaison agencies between the public and the personnel agency. These citizens' advisory boards are intended to help the Civil Service Commission adapt to the public service effective personnel techniques developed by business and industry, and to report back to the citizens it represents the state's progress in personnel matters. To the

extent that they succeed in these aims, advisory committees can serve a valuable purpose. I believe the taxpayers are entitled to know how the state's funds are spent.

Efficient administration indicates for future accomplishment the concentration of all Illinois state personnel and retirement agencies in one personnel department. Steps are now being taken to achieve closer coordination between budgetary and personnel agencies, so that state salaries will more truly represent equal pay for equal work, and that they will be more responsive to changing economic values.

The Code of the Civil Servant

I AM a free man living in a nation having a government devoted to freedom and good will.

I serve that government directly as a public servant.

I am honored by the opportunity for public service.

I believe because of the power which rests in government to protect the lives and property of all citizens and to assure the liberty of each to pursue happiness in his own way without trespass upon the liberty of his neighbor, that service in any position of government from the lowest to the highest is a sacred trust involving serious responsibility to God and man.

I pledge complete and undivided loyalty to the laws and ideals of my government, and to the officials of government who have direction over my work.

I shall resist and expose any small or great attempts or pressures from within or without government to corrupt me or my government or to reduce in any way the effectiveness of my work as a public servant.

I shall serve my government honestly and industriously in each task that is mine throughout my period of service.

I shall tell the truth and urge that all with whom I work in government and those with whom I come in contact in connection with my daily tasks shall also respect the truth in every way.

I believe that every wilful betrayal of governmental responsibility should be exposed and punished.

I recognize that the government is the servant and not the master of the citizen and shall treat each citizen with courtesy and respect.

I shall consistently urge that laws and rules providing for the appointment and promotion of civil service employees on the basis of merit and fitness be fully and scrupulously observed as necessary to good government.

I shall urge upon my fellow citizens that they take a vital interest in the honesty and integrity of their government in its day to day operation.

I believe that as a citizen and a public servant I am entitled to the inalienable rights of all citizens of my country, and to the respect and rewards due all workers in a free nation devoted to the highest possible standards of social, economic and political welfare.

I shall insist upon the right at all times to petition and appeal individually and through the organization of my choice for the establishment and application of sound and fair employment practices for all who serve my government.

—William F. McDonough, The Civil Service Employees Association, 8 Elk St., Albany, N. Y.



THE BOOKSHELF



BEGIN NOW—TO ENJOY TOMORROW. Ray Giles, Illustrated by Will Black, Published as a public service by the Mutual Benefit Life Insurance Company of Newark, New Jersey.

With characteristic American energy our medical scientists have succeeded in finding out how to extend our life span. Men and women are living substantially longer now than at the turn of the century. In the same American way our researchers have kept their eyes on the results sought and have given little if any thought to the social, economic, and financial problems which inevitably flow from having so many more elderly people in our population than we had a generation or so ago.

As these new problems begin to show up, in many instances in acute form, a new literature rapidly increasing in volume has crowded into our reading fields. This little book (57 pages) is just one of the many that have been put into circulation in the past few years. In Chapter 1 the author urges the reader to "Plan Your Retirement Now" and seeks to point out the advantages of planning. He also tells the reader what his interests are likely to be, how he will spend his later years over a long period, and says that middle age or even youth is not too early to begin. Chapter 2 undertakes to outline the formula or formulae for the years of retirement under the caption of "A New Life Of Your Own." Chapter 3, "What About Money" goes to the real meat of the matter. Here the reader is invited to turn his thinking to plans for systematic saving, insurance, investments, annuities, social security, and a home. Chapter 4, titled "Ten Ways To Be Young For Your Years" offers the usual do's and don't's for right living, and Chapter 5 wraps the whole thing up neatly under the caption "And Here's A Retirement Time Table."

In reading this publication one gets the feeling that the author is not writing out of his own experience or deep convictions but rather that he has been assigned to write a piece, that in meeting this assignment he has read enough of other current writings on the subject for background, gathered a sufficient number of examples of elderly people who have done interesting and worthwhile things, put them together in attractive form, and so the task is done.

The style is easy and the text offers an hour

of pleasant reading. It should be of interest to many public employees with retirement pay and to many people in private employment who look toward the leisure years but who have no plan in the making after their regular job-holding days are ended and who have not prepared for the transition.

The book is not, of course, a textbook or authoritative guide to happy living in the evening years of life. It is not intended so to be. Its particular purpose is to encourage financial planning for old age through insurance, and this is important. The presentation of this matter could have been stronger with complete propriety. A carefully planned insurance program, suited to the needs and the ability of the individual in government and out, still offers the best way to provide financially for old age comfort and satisfaction. Insurance was one of the citizen's ways of providing his own social security long before government entered the field, and it continues to be sound and the American way.—CHARLES P. MESSICK, *Charles P. Messick and Associates.*

THE SUPERVISION OF PERSONNEL, HUMAN RELATIONS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF MEN. John M. Pfiffner. Prentice Hall, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y., 1951. 443 pp. \$6.00.

This book had its beginnings in a transcontinental train ride which John M. Pfiffner experienced in the mid-nineteen-thirties. During this ride from Los Angeles to some point in the East where a personnel conference was held, Professor Pfiffner engaged in conversation with two prominent personnel directors (and presumably others). He reports that "the one item of conversation that not only attracted my attention at the time but has remained vivid in my memory, dwelt upon the line supervisor as being the weakest line in personnel management." Since that time, Professor Pfiffner has apparently been collecting items of opinion and fact to shed light on the solution of this problem from a wide variety of sources in the several aspects of management, and the social sciences—particularly anthropology and psychology. This extensive collection of materials, which is prominently reflected in a host of footnotes and bibliographical references, was put together in mimeographed form and used in a wide variety of teaching situations for several years. The final result is the book

under review—and like a long transcontinental train ride, whence it has its inception, it is a long book—somewhat repetitious and “bumpy.” It might seem natural to follow the analogy by scoring the book as boring; but I’m not going to—because the book like the conversation, which apparently brought it forth, is highly purposive and important, and Dr. Pfiffner selected good sources of information to follow up on his conversations.

The Supervision of Personnel is essentially a book of gleanings from the dynamic literature of modern “human relations.” It is at best a fairly consistent resumé of what Follett, Mayo, Roethlisberger, Dickson, and others who, as general interpreters, researchers, and applicers of the “person-centered” philosophy of management, have said about the importance of two-way communication, informal organization, consultation, and other similar concepts of effective supervision. Persons who have followed this literature reasonably closely will find a consistent and generally accurate interpretation of these sources, but little that is new. Persons who have not become acquainted with these concepts will find Pfiffner’s book useful at a general introduction to the concepts.

The book is organized into five parts, each of which follows the theme of the book denoted by the subtitle “Human Relations in the Management of Men.”

Under “Organization and Management,” organization as a supervisory activity, the economics of supervision, union relations, internal management controls, and work simplification are treated. Under “Social Aspects of Supervision,” informal organization, communication, belief systems, attitudes, conflicts, cooperation and morale are examined. Under “Motivation,” the role of the supervisor as leader and the importance of motivation, incentives, and participation are emphasized. “Clinical Approaches to Troubled People,” which is the largest part of the book, establishes the clinician’s point of view and develops specific applications to the ordinary and the more difficult problems of human relations for the supervisor. The last part on “Selection and Training” is self-explanatory.

I hope that I have now conveyed to the reader some information about the content of Dr. Pfiffner’s book and some notion that I appraise it as generally useful, particularly for persons who are encountering for the first time the basic findings of social science research and philosophy as applied to problems of supervision. But, I cannot close this review without

getting back to that train ride. If the first part of the ride was as jumpy and disjointed as the introductory chapters of the book, I’m a little surprised that Dr. Pfiffner didn’t get off and take a plane, but he didn’t and I didn’t stop reading the book. But, I cite a few early “jolts” that almost made me stop. For example:

In the first place, the administrator must understand and learn how to deal with the informal social organization as well as the formal organization. The second need is semantic in nature, the development of a language that permits people to communicate on a cooperative basis. “This will be a language of mutually interdependent relations, of togetherness, of equilibrium, of adaptation, and of growth.” Thirdly, the administrator must learn to conduct himself in an environment of two-way communication. He must listen to the subordinate’s point of view without evidencing perturbation. Fourthly, the new administrator must learn to introduce change without provoking resistance, chiefly by outlining the devices of participation at the work level. In the fifth place, he must understand and be able to operate in an environment that fosters healthy subordinate-superior relationships. Finally, the foreman must be able to distinguish the realm of feelings from the realm of facts and logic.

(Ever hear of gobbledegook?)

Man is distinguished from other animals by virtue of the fact that he thinks and reasons. But man is only partly a rational animal, a tremendous proportion of human behavior being irrational in nature. Some persons seem to have a greater innate need for a factual or scientific explanation of things in general, while others tend to seek a supernatural explanation. That is why there sometimes seems to be a conflict between science and religion. The supervisor should try to understand the causes for irrational behavior that interfere with management objectives. Those that are cultural in nature, springing from early family and community environment, can probably be partly altered by training. Others may be inborn, and thus resistant to change. For instance, hospital attendants are often averse to handling the dead and will resort to every artifice and ruse to shift this responsibility to someone else. On the other hand there are a few persons, perhaps relatively small in percentage of the population, who seem attracted by the handling of the dead.

(Supervisors should gain some real insight from this one!)

Page the *New Yorker*!—R. O. NIEHOFF, *Tennessee Valley Authority*.

IMPACT OF WAR ON FEDERAL PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION 1939-1945. Gladys M. Kammerer. University of Kentucky Press, Lexington, 1951. 372 pp. \$6.00.

Dr. Kammerer’s book is one which every public personnel worker, particularly those

actively concerned with federal personnel administration, will want to read. It comes at a time when we are reliving some of the emergency administrative experiences of 1940 and 1941; yet it is far enough removed from the war period to afford perspective. The book is very thorough and is heavily documented, but is not difficult to read.

The author introduces her book with this statement: "New and unforeseen demands for personnel accumulated under the pressure of defense preparation and, later, of total war. These demands caused radical adaptations in, and departures from, principles and procedures hallowed by nearly sixty years of practice." She goes on to say that the principal changes in the merit system brought about during the war years were ten in number: (1) centralization of responsibility for recruitment in the Civil Service Commission; (2) adoption of a new aggressive approach to recruitment; (3) deterioration in qualifications standards; (4) new emphasis on loyalty as other standards fell; (5) development of training programs; (6) increased mobility within the service; (7) intensification of pressures for higher pay; (8) control over the volume of federal employment; (9) evolution of employee relations programs; and (10) reorganization of the Civil Service Commission for improved personnel management.

The significance of the wartime centralization of recruitment was the early Congressional determination that defense recruitment would be conducted under the civil service system. The sheer volume of recruitment, therefore, was much greater than at any other time in history. The result after the war has been that the size of the competitive service has been considerably larger than ever before.

The author points out that the new aggressive approach to recruitment was emphasized in three ways: (1) the development of new and radically different techniques for reaching and interesting the labor market; (2) the active development of new sources of supply from hitherto neglected sectors of the population; and (3) adaptation of the work to fit the personnel available. "Abandoning the negative and passive philosophy, feasible, even if not desirable, in a labor market flooded with millions of unemployed persons, the United States Civil Service Commission embarked on a positive and persuasive program to seek actively for the best and induce them to accept federal employment. Nothing could have been more antithetical to the old 'keep the rascals out' rationale, for what ensued was a gigantic sales

campaign to reach the American public and enlist it for the duration."

Qualification requirements were geared obviously to the labor market and the author discusses the continual deterioration of standards. Appointments were made on a war service basis, however, which mitigated the effects of the lower standards because the millions of employees hired during the war were not expected to remain after the war. This principle, the reviewer adds, is in use in the present emergency under the stimulation of the Whitten Amendment of 1950. Very little thought, Dr. Kammerer adds, was given to means for retaining the best of the new recruits for permanent service.

The author's wording seems to imply a relationship between the deterioration of qualification standards and the increased emphasis on loyalty. Actually, we know that one was due to the stringency of the labor market and the other to the world-wide conflict of ideologies.

The book devotes two chapters to the great impetus which the war period gave to employee training programs. The lowering of qualification standards required attention to training in order to meet the wartime production needs. The gains in training were primarily made by the war agencies themselves rather than by the Civil Service Commission. As a matter of fact, she says: "The war began and ended with no clarification from Congress of the role of the Civil Service Commission with respect to training." She thinks that if the federal government can consolidate its gains in the two fields of supervisory and administrative training alone, we will be much richer for the war experience.

The mobility of the work force, both horizontally and vertically, was a sizable problem in the federal government but, of course, was not confined to the government alone. Curbs were applied which aimed at moving workers where needed the most for the war effort and keeping them there after they had been moved. These were in the form of agency priorities, personnel ceilings, and clearance of transfers.

The stupendous expansion of the labor force, together with increases in the cost of living, caused tremendous pressures for higher pay to be exerted. Because the legislative pay scales were inflexible and no changes in the pay structure were made until 1945, the pressures were directed almost altogether against the Classification Act. The author thinks this resulted in a warping of the classification system. She ascribes some of the blame for this

situation on the reluctance of the administration to request Congress for pay adjustment and on the lack of classification standards. She seriously scores the Civil Service Commission for not having published classification standards between 1923 and 1943. When they were finally developed, she says, it was too late to do any good.

The lack of a money control or program control on the activities of government led to attempts to control the size of the federal work force by other means. She says this was attempted in two ways: (1) through the medium of Congressional investigations; and (2) through statutory enactment of personnel ceiling controls to be exercised by the Bureau of the Budget. She does not feel that these two means of control were effective and thinks that this is a problem which still confronts the federal government.

"Increasingly during the war years it became apparent that a sound employee relations program, with increased employee services, was indispensable to assist management in meeting the many new war-born pressures, such as housing shortages, poor supervision, incomplete recreational facilities, and lack of credit arrangements." Employee counseling came into its own during this period even though it was seriously criticized by the Congress and other groups because of the social work approach which was taken in some agencies. The War and Navy Departments operated successful employee suggestions programs under legislative authority. The reviewer points out that this experience led to legislative authority after the war for suggestion programs throughout the government. The war experience likewise led to the adoption of a federal employee health plan at the close of the war.

The book delineates the many organizational changes made by the Civil Service Commission so that it could do the biggest job it had ever faced. Judged on its entire wartime record, Dr. Kammerer concludes that the Commission performed its job rather well. She attributes considerable measure of credit for the Commission's success during this period to the vigorous and competent administration of Commissioner Arthur S. Flemming.

In summary, the author says that there were five achievements which can be credited to the wartime experience: (1) survival of the merit system principles through the adaptability and flexibility of the personnel system; (2) success in recruitment for the expanded federal service; (3) progress in the building of training programs; (4) realization of the importance of

employee relations in the public service; and (5) a new recognition of personnel administration itself. On the other hand, she feels there are certain problems which remained unsolved during the war, and, the reviewer adds, in considerable degree remain unsolved today. They are: (1) transfers and promotions within the federal service; (2) handicaps of an inadequate federal salary structure; (3) control of number of employees; and (4) control of subversive elements in the public service.

The reviewer feels that Dr. Kammerer has done an outstanding job of setting forth and analyzing the personnel problems of war and assessing the extent to which these problems were resolved. This book should help us to build upon the experiences of World War II and thereby improve the operation of the merit system for peace as well as for the eventuality of another conflict.—CECIL E. GOODE, *Federal Civil Defense Administration*.

BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES. C. Wilson Randle. Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street, Boston, Mass., 1951. 740 pp. \$6.00.

Mr. Randle, Dean of the School of Business at Western Reserve University, has described the principles and practices of negotiation and minimized its theoretical aspects. He chose this approach because he believed it would provide the best foundation for understanding the subject by management, labor, and college students—the audience he wished to reach primarily. The book is divided into four parts: Introduction (background of collective bargaining); Structure; Issues; and the Contract.

CURRENT RESEARCH PROJECTS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION. Public Administration Service, 1313 E. 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois, 1951. 48 pp. \$1.00.

The ninth report published by PAS listing the public administration research in progress in various U.S. institutions and universities. Titles are listed under 38 different subject-matter headings, and a code number indicates the time of the availability of the final report.

COMPULSORY ARBITRATION OF UTILITY DISPUTES IN NEW JERSEY AND PENNSYLVANIA. Robert R. France and Richard A. Lester. Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey, 1951. 90 pp. \$2.00.

This report examines the administration of

the compulsory arbitration statutes of New Jersey and Pennsylvania and its effects on collective bargaining and industrial relations. These two states were chosen for study because of their location; the differences in legislation, administration, and experience; and the fact that New Jersey has handled more arbitration cases than any other state. Management and union representatives and all persons having extensive experience as arbitrators were interviewed. The files of the arbitration boards, including data on bargaining prior to arbitration and the final decision were also thoroughly studied.

EXECUTIVE TALENT, ITS IMPORTANCE AND DEVELOPMENT. Frank W. Pierce and George B. Corless. Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, 1951. 31 pp. \$1.00.

A reprint of two addresses given by top executives of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. The first deals with the place of and responsibilities of management; the second

describes the Standard Oil program designed to develop men to assume executive positions.

SUPERVISORS' ESTIMATES OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AMONG THEIR SUBORDINATES. American Council on Education. Research Staff on Scientific Personnel, Washington, D. C. 1950. 42 pp.

Under a contract with the Office of Naval Research, the American Council on Education conducted studies at three naval installations to determine the needs, if any, for further education among employed adults. An answer to the question was sought in three ways: (1) by asking employees what courses they felt they should take or were prepared to take; (2) by asking supervisors what training they felt employees needed; and (3) by studying job descriptions. This publication reports the results of the second approach. It contains samples of the questionnaires used, pertinent comments of supervisors, and summary tables and text of their recommendations.

Music for CSA Ears

THE Assembly has received a letter from Mr. Tomoo Sato, Director-General of the National Personnel Authority of Japan which members will be interested to read. It illustrates almost perfectly why the CSA was organized and the goals it hopes to accomplish. The Personnel Authority is a new agency member.

Dear Mr. Warner:

I have duly received your letter of July 2 replying to my enquiries of June 7, and thank you most sincerely for sending me such prompt reply as well as for the most useful information given therein. I think that most of our doubtful points will be resolved by your letter and the material enclosed therein.

If, after carefully reading and digesting the information furnished, there still remains any doubt, I shall avail myself of your kindness and write to you again for further enlightenment. Although presumably it would take a great many years and there would also be many difficulties before the sapling of democratic personnel administration transplanted on the soil of Japan by your country will grow into a lofty tree as in the case of your country, your technical assistance is an incalculable aid to us who are responsible for its protection and growth.

The material received with your letter under acknowledgment will be returned to you within two months.

Yours sincerely,

SATO Tomoo
Director-General
National Personnel Authority

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the
Public Personnel Field

Personnel Administration

SHURTLEFF, WADE E., "Quality Workmanship Today." *Personnel Journal*, June, 1951. —"The trouble with employees today," laments an old timer, "is they just don't take any pride in their work. It's a shame how they turn out sloppy, careless work." The question facing us is: Why did the worker of yesterday take so much pride in his work, whereas the employees of today take no interest in quality? You can look at such a problem as an inevitable outgrowth of our system of mass production and say it is a necessary evil, but one that is more than counterbalanced by the material benefits of modern technology. Or such problems can be accepted by you as a challenge just as intriguing as the invention of mechanical improvements. Progress is being made by managers who have accepted the challenge and are striving to recreate some of the old-time pride in quality work. One manager received a complaint from a distributor concerning the quality of appliances made by the company and threatened to discontinue the company's line. The manager realized he had to obtain better quality production. He considered various orthodox ways. Finally he suggested to the union committee that it meet with the distributor to persuade him to continue handling the company's line. The union spokesman saw the distributor and told him they would see that hereafter he would receive good machines. The men in the shop were told—not by the company, but by the union—why good quality was necessary. This manager achieved his objective of dramatizing to the employees the link between their own job security and turning out good quality production. An aircraft parts manufacturer was faced with a similar problem. He arranged for an ex-employee serving as a pilot in the air force to explain to the employees the importance of the equipment they were manufacturing. The quality of the work improved. Another manager used the device of posting a chart above each machine indicating the percentage of work passing inspection. This running record served as an incentive to many of the operators to turn out better work. These managers are dramatizing to the individual employee the relation of quality to his or her own interests. They are showing the workers in their plants the relation of the parts on which they work to the final product. The importance of quality pro-

duction to the final consumer is being stressed. And they are recognizing good workmanship on the part of individual employees.—*L. J. Van Mol.*

GRODZINS, MORTON. "Public Administration and the Science of Human Relations." *Public Administration Review*, Spring, 1951.—Two social sciences serve public administrators. One is the traditional science of public administration. The other is a science of social or human relations forged from the disciplines of psychology, social psychology, sociology, and social anthropology. Practicing administrators have found human relations research of first importance in their work. No result of recent social psychological research is more striking than the unanimity of opinion on the importance of the small informal group. High absenteeism and high turnover are associated with the work situation in which there are relatively undeveloped primary groups. If the directives of groups with which a person identifies himself are antagonistic to administrative goals, the administrative tasks become more difficult. Psychological testing, carefully used, can materially increase the probabilities of bringing the right people to the right jobs. The experience of the Office of Strategic Services in basing its personnel selection process on a psychological assessment program is a good example of this thesis. The personality attributes, value systems, and cultural patterns of those who are subjects of administrative action must be known. The new science of human relations holds to the view that the human, the interpersonal, and the informal factors are of crucial administrative consequence. One important limiting factor in the building of the science of human behavior results in the fact that the objects of this science are themselves thinking, remembering, and articulate human beings. One might ask this question: "How will workers react when they learn that their supervisors know that they can get more work done by taking a personal interest in them?" The acceptance of social science knowledge by nonscientists is complicated by the fact that it must compete with the "feel" and informal hunches of the experienced officials. The most fundamental factor limiting the usefulness of social science in public administration is the fact that administrative decisions are based on judgments of value, consideration of right

or wrong, good or bad, or the expedient or inexpedient. While social science cannot make policy, it can sharpen the questions asked by policymakers; it can predict and measure consequences; it can qualify issues; and it can supply the facts on which every decision should, in some part, rest.—*Verlyn L. Fletcher.*

Training

LIVERIGHT, A. A., "Role Playing in Leadership Training," *Personnel Journal*, April, 1951.—Role playing is a simple drama in which two or more people act out a situation relating to a problem or ideas which a group is considering. Either the leader or the group can choose the situation and define the characters, but no one memorizes a part and conversation is spontaneous. By acting out the situation, both the actors and the rest of the group have a better chance to analyze the problem. They can examine points of view and think through the way the role players reacted to each other. Seeing the situation unfold before their eyes makes it easier for the participants to understand it. Many classes in grievance procedure set up situations in which real or imaginary grievances are acted out, thus making role playing a valuable tool to help a group analyze an actual situation. It can be used to prepare people for future situations by giving them a chance to practice in advance; shy people can forget themselves in playing a part; those with aggressive feelings can get rid of them in a harmless manner; and all can grow in understanding of the problems of other people.

The following factors are essential in most role playing situations: (1) choosing the problem; (2) agreeing on details of the case; (3) defining roles; (4) defining the place of the observers; (5) the role playing itself; and (6) the discussion following. (An actual role playing situation is described.) It must not be used until the group is warmed up and relaxed, for the group must recognize the problem and want to do something about it. Used wisely, role playing has an important place in training, but it must be used for a purpose. It is generally more valuable in analyzing, spotting or diagnosing a problem than in actually solving the problem. (Article includes a list of the advantages and shortcomings of role playing, and the author advises those who contemplate using the technique to check carefully before they try it in their training program.)—*James E. Mountain.*

Classification; Pay

WAGER, CHARLES E., and SHARON, MILTON I., "Defining Job Requirements in Terms of Behavior," *Personnel Administration*, March, 1951.—The personnel technician ordinarily lacks an objective and factual definition of exactly what constitutes effective on-the-job performance in terms of actual behavior. In the Sixth U.S. Civil Service Region, an experimental study was conducted for the purpose of exploring methods of defining job requirements objectively in terms of observed behavior. A method called the "Critical Incident" technique was employed. Twenty unit supervisors were interviewed and furnished data concerning on-the-job behavior of Air Force Maintenance Technicians. From this information it was possible to record 97 incidents of effective or ineffective behavior, all of which were critical to job success in the opinion of the supervisors. The interviewer briefed the important elements of each incident into one or two short sentences. The incidents were carefully analyzed and classified into categories, each representing a group of similar behaviors. Although time did not permit a thorough study, it was possible to formulate seven critical requirements with which the supervisors, on re-interview, were unanimously in agreement as comprehensively covering all requirements for effective performance on the maintenance technician job. Once the critical requirements were defined, it was possible to arrive at a number of interesting and significant conclusions concerning the requirements currently being employed in recruiting maintenance technicians. An objective basis existed for the construction of additional testing devices to cover those areas for which the current selection methods appeared to be inadequate. It was also found that critical incidents were useful in suggesting items for confidential inquiry forms.—*Kenneth H. Otten.*

Employee Relations

BUTLER, R. E., "The Older Employee," *Personnel Administration*, March, 1951.—Problems of the aging—including older employees of government and industry—are as complex and varied as any in the entire field of human relations. Involving economic, social, educational, and financial equations, these problems might well be considered to have as their common denominator the physical and mental health of the older people among us. The problems peculiar to our older employees cannot be met by the resources of medicine and public health alone. Other professional talent

groups are being mobilized to meet needs arising from the advancing age of gainfully employed older persons. Important among the newer competencies in this effort are those of personnel counseling. Consider specific things that can be done in government or industry to meet the over-all problems of the older employee. First, avoid common errors made in shaping the environment of the older worker. One of these is setting him apart by endowing him with special rights and privileges merely because of his age. The other is treating him as though his age were a disease. Employers should go farther than merely avoiding these errors, serious though they may be. They should direct the skill of their personnel counseling facilities to the end that these errors in attitude toward older workers do not become a pattern among employee groups themselves. An enlightened approach in counseling the older employee might embrace these four essential phases: (1) betterment of hygiene to improve the mental and physical health and morale of older workers; (2) prevention and early detection of chronic disease in order to decelerate the process of physical aging; (3) rehabilitation and retraining as may be required to help other workers adjust to jobs which they can better perform; and (4) education, both of the aging and of their associates, to break down prejudices and bring about wide changes in attitudes toward our older people. All who work with the older employee—as personnel counselors, employment officials, or physicians—have an obligation to preserve the human resources through old age by doing what we can to stave off for as long as possible the period of true senility and complete dependency.—*Robert Hachen*.

THOMAS, WILLIAM R., "Problems Under FEPC." *Personnel Journal*, May, 1951.—The problem of eliminating discrimination in employment is not so simple as the proponents of this type of legislation would have us believe. Attitudes and sentiments built up over long periods of time cannot be legislated out of existence. The importance of congenial work groups in the maintenance of industrial efficiency is a recognized principle, and the effect of radical changes in employment patterns upon informal social relationships cannot be ignored. Anti-discriminatory legislation will pose many problems for the personnel administrator. He may be forced to abandon the practice of using one tried and satisfactory employment agency. FEPC might require that several agencies be used or even that all req-

uisioning be done through government (USES) agencies. Many companies have relied upon word-of-mouth recruitment as a major source of new employees. Abandoning this would mean higher cost and loss of the congenial work teams which reduce labor turnover. Application blanks would have to be carefully scrutinized to eliminate any discriminatory phrasing. Community attitudes would have to be reconciled toward minority group representation among employees dealing with the public. Job analyses and job standards would have to be reviewed to protect the company from being forced to hire unqualified workers. Training programs would have to be instituted to teach supervisors and employees the need for nondiscriminatory practices. Employees might tend to blame minority workers for work problems and the need for a new grievance procedure would arise. All present experiences with antidiscriminatory legislation are from a period of full employment and do not indicate the magnitude of the problems which would arise in a time of job scarcity.—*Augusta Fink*.

WICKERT, FREDERIC R., "Turnover, and Employees' Feelings of Ego-Involvement in the Day-to-Day Operations of a Company." *Personnel Psychology*, Summer, 1951.—An empirical study of the attitudes and morale of almost 600 young women telephone operators and service representatives of the Michigan Bell Telephone Company unexpectedly revealed that employee ego-involvement is related to turnover. Subjects consisted of practically all operators in Lansing, Grand Rapids, and Pontiac, and service representatives in Lansing and Grand Rapids who were hired during the period January, 1945, through February, 1948, and who remained with the company, as well as many others hired during this period who had left the company. The experimental criterion was turnover. The predictor variables were: (1) biographical data (from original application blank and from questionnaire administered in 1948); (2) test scores (from original employment tests); (3) "neurotic tendency" scores (from about 60 "personality" items on questionnaire); and (4) measures of attitude or morale (from items on questionnaire). The relationship between any one predictor variable and the criterion was shown by comparing the percentage of on-force girls having a certain biographical characteristic, being above or below a critical test score, or giving a certain response to a "neurotic tendency" question or attitude question, with the percentage

of off-force girls having the same characteristic or checking the same questionnaire response. While turnover studies frequently attempt to predict the turnover-prone employee by using biographical data and test results, in this study only chance relationship was found between the turnover criterion and these two common predictor variables. This study did indicate, however, that the girls who stayed on the job felt that they had more opportunity to make decisions on the job and were contributing more to the success of the company than those who left. They were more ego-involved in their work. This is a bit of empirical evidence for industrial democracy. (Article contains tables showing amount of importance or satisfaction felt by employees and former employees as indicated by their responses to five key questions.)—*Arthur V. Wolfe.*

Personnel Management

WALLEN, RICHARD, "Improving Supervision by Reducing Anxiety." *Personnel Journal*, May, 1951.—Too often, programs organized to train executives or supervisors in "human relations" simply teach them what to say about the subject without changing what they do. The problem is so similar to that faced by the therapeutic counselor that it is worth trying to translate therapeutic principles into supervisory training methods. Therapists have discovered that using threats, social pressure, and appeals to pride when attempting to change behavior produces verbal compliance while increasing insecurity and resentment. Contrariwise, decreasing the tensions—usually anxiety—makes for real improvement often with no sense of intentional effort to change. Fatigue illustrates the point: irritability due to fatigue does not yield to persuasion nor to lectures pointing out its origin, but if you diminish the fatigue the irritability also decreases. A supervisor's efforts to control his anxiety results in ineffective or harmful supervision much as fatigue results in irritability. This anxiety may be seated in a supervisor's personal history, in present non-job pressures, or in the social structure of the organization and the personal characteristics of his boss. Anxiety arising from the first two sources can be reduced by direct conferences in which therapeutic methods are used, while those arising from the last source can be reduced only by altering the behavior and demands of the supervisor's boss. There is not much a personnel man can do about changing the personal characteristics of the boss, but it is possible for him to use the therapeutic

viewpoint when in conference with supervisors. Without a background in the psychology of personality and methods of psychotherapy, however, he should not try to depart too widely from his usual methods of supervisory training. There are several things to remember in trying the therapeutic method of supervisory training. Try to start the training program as near the top of the supervisory structure as possible. In planning the conferences, keep the various power and status levels in separate groups. Be prepared for expressions of anxiety and hostility. Recognize your own anxiety and its effects. Work for free expression and insight rather than mastery of knowledge. Finally, do not count on getting results too quickly.—*Robert W. Coppock.*

FORD, HENRY A., "Supervision of Women in Industry." *Personnel Journal*, April, 1951.—Industry is once again preparing itself to face a shortage of manpower, and women will again be called upon to fill the gaps. The misconception as to the handling of the female employee is the underlying factor in most failures in supervision and must be brought into the open and thoroughly examined through a series of group meetings or by individual conferences. Certain incidents in daily work should be discussed. Take up methods of handling women and have the group criticize and debate them. Point out that they must prepare for greater absenteeism with women employees and must plan accordingly by having a number of extra girls on call and training girls capable of handling several different jobs who can fill in where production is needed most. Discuss various ways to cut down accident rates in the departments through campaigns and contests. Emphasize the fact that female employees must be made more conscious of the importance of keeping the room in order and machines in good condition. Help your supervisors to eliminate as many of the petty grievances as possible by advising them to avoid any situation which might lead to grievances. Bring to your supervisors' minds the importance of impartiality in their supervision. Point out the inevitable conflicts to which partiality leads. Have a psychologist, one acquainted with the industry, address your group. There should be no excuse for a supervisor's failure to get along with his women employees. Any failure of this nature is caused solely by his inability to realize that he cannot use the same tactics with his female employees as have proved successful with male workers. He must be given all aid possible to enable him to cope with the influx

of women in industry. Once he recognizes that his techniques must differ, he will find that his department can be as efficient as any in the plant.—*Carroll R. Boling.*

LAW SHE, C. H., HOLMES, WILLIAM H. E., JR., and TURMAIL, GEORGE M., "An Analysis of Employee Handbooks." *Personnel*, May, 1951.—This study of almost 100 handbooks in use in representative companies indicates that those which rated high in interest, clarity, and visual appeal had certain specific characteristics in common.

Over 60 per cent of the space in the average handbook studied is devoted to either general information about the company, policies and rules, or company facilities. If an employee is to look at the handbook, a great deal more effort should be devoted to its eye appeal—that is, it must be made more appealing visually by more attractive cover designs with good color usage, as well as including more photographs, drawings, and diagrams and charts in the interior of the book. The best size from the standpoint of eye appeal seems to be from about 4" x 6" to about 6" x 9".

In writing a handbook for the first time, suggestions may be obtained from: employees, first-line supervisors, union officials, and handbooks of other companies. The handbooks of those companies which asked employees for suggestions were more interesting than those of companies which did not ask their employees. Some method of follow-up is desirable. This can be a follow-up talk by some company official, a give-and-take discussion in which the employee may ask questions, merely telling the employee the name or position of the person with whom he can discuss any questions about the handbook, or any combination of these. The level of interest of the handbooks is too low. Companies planning a new or revised handbook should make it more interesting by using references to persons and more personally directed sentences.

Most of the handbooks are too difficult for the intended reader. The handbook should be made more readable by using shorter words and shorter sentences.—*Max S. Lindemann.*

Testing

BLAKEMORE, ARLINE, "Reducing Typing Costs with Aptitude Tests." *Personnel Journal*, May, 1951.—Increasing the productivity of an organization's employees is part of the work of every personnel department. The first step in increasing employee productivity is to select

for the job an applicant who has the native capacities required to do the job well. Aptitude tests may save time and money by increasing our accuracy in determining the capacities of applicants before hiring. The method of using aptitude tests is very logical. First, one measures with several appropriate tests the characteristics of those who are presently successful and of those not so good on a job. Out of the several tests originally given, those tests which were most accurate in distinguishing the more successful from those less so are then given the candidates. We then select those candidates whose capacities most nearly resemble the workers who are already successful. Using a small battery of tests in this manner can result in a brief and economical selection tool. One company in using a scheme like this reduced its typing costs six per cent. "It is strange that so few employers use tests at all, and that fewer still have made studies like this one, to prove the value of the tests."—*Rufus C. Browning.*

Service Standards

FERGUSON, LEONARD W., "Management Quality and Its Effect on Selection Test Validity." *Personnel Psychology*, Summer, 1951.—The Aptitude Index is a test which is being used effectively to determine potential productivity and survival of prospective insurance agents. The problem is to determine the effect of district or agency management upon the validity of the predictions made from the test. The standards of management quality, as established by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company include district production, conservation of business and quality of personnel. The first step determines the extent to which agent performance is related to quality of management; the second determines the extent to which the agent performance is related to agent aptitude; and the third determines the extent to which this latter relation can be affected by variations in the quality of district or agency management. In solving the three steps, 524 agents were divided into three groups of districts classified as above average, average, or below average. For each group the percentage of agents falling into these categories was determined according to aptitude index scores and grouped according to production and income. The findings show odds of 5-2 in favor of agents making above average income in districts of above average management quality, and 4-1 in favor of those with above average aptitude index scores. The data also show

production of agents is dependent upon the quality of management. Correlation of the above factors shows that the better the quality of district management, the more accurate a prediction of agent performance, based on aptitude index scores. This means that equal consideration should be given to the two fac-

tors of agent aptitude and quality of management when making predictions of agent performance. (Article includes tables showing agents' income and production, in relation to management quality and aptitude index scores, and selection test validity as affected by management quality.)—*B. H. Peterson.*

Notes and Comments

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classification and operating management as proposed by Mr. McInnis would surely cause sterile mass production of "objective judgments," inflexible and largely ineffective as a management tool. In short, the plan proposed as an alternative to the existing system appears to strive for machine-like precision at the expense of operational reality. Probably the greatest impetus to the development of aggressive federal personnel management has been the Civil Service Commission's threefold program: establishment of standards, delegation of authority, and inspection for compliance. Few can doubt that management, in the federal service at least, has improved tremendously in the past ten years through the assumption of a more complete and integrated management responsibility at the lowest practicable level. It is difficult to believe that anyone could seriously propose snatching away from the administrator one of his important tools of executive management and offering him, in its place, a noose. No; surely Mr. McInnis has his tongue slyly in his cheek and this is, after all, a hoax.

C. MANSEL KEENE, *Chief, Regional Classification Division, Twelfth United States Civil Service Commission.*

I should like to record some purely personal observations, ones not necessarily identified with my present position, to some of the ideas advanced by H. Donald McInnis in his article on "Delegation of Classification Authority: Theory and Practice."

It appears that two major points can be made with respect to this article. First, the author overlooks most of the basic causes of poor classification and second, his "solution" would reduce the possibility of achieving the greatest benefits from position classification.

With respect to the first point, the proper

use of the classification process is more dependent on the reduction of fundamental underlying problems than on whether control is centralized or decentralized.

The subversion of classification, and other evidences of managerial chafing at the supposed strictures of classification, may be (1) indicative of misunderstanding and ignorance at management levels of the uses and advantages of classification; (2) symptomatic of situations where there are inadequate managers who do not have clear-cut goals and who do not understand nor properly utilize the techniques, classification included, which are essential to a proper fulfillment of their managerial responsibilities; (3) the result of weaknesses or illogical aspects of the classification plan itself or some of the administrative procedures, standards, etc., associated with it; (4) the outgrowth of stresses arising from skills shortages in the labor market; (5) a reflection of an attempted adjustment to pressures arising from an outmoded or inflexible compensation schedule associated with the classification plan; (6) a response to the lack of technical skill, narrowness of vision or unfortunate personal characteristics of the classifiers. These factors, or others, singly or in combination, are matters on which to focus immediate concern. Striking at these basic causes will not only help to eliminate the forces which prevent the proper realization of a classification plan but will also bring about sounder and more economical government.

With respect to the second major point to be made concerning the article, management cannot be truly effective without the use of classification as a primary component of the administrative process. Placing classification authority solely in a central control agency blunts management's awareness of its continuing responsibility for all classification processes except that of the final allocation of a position. Under this circumstance it is difficult, if not impossible, for management to have a

proper regard for classification and to use it as a significant part of its administrative activities.

If classification awareness and knowledges are not an intrinsic part of management decisions, the resulting actions are apt to lack the logic, coherence, and economy which classification can impart. An unenlightened management or one which feels frustrated by its classification plan may exercise its will to delegate duties and responsibilities so as to achieve a maximum number of the allocations it wants. In such an instance the classifier may have the doubtful distinction of placing labels and grades on an overstuffed, misshapen, confused, organizational monstrosity. When this happens it is not only classification which is the loser; it is also the entire management process and ultimately the general public. The conscientious operating official tries to the best of his ability to carry out the basic functions or missions which he is assigned by law or executive direction; in attempting to achieve those ends, he may at times sacrifice classification as well as other components of the administrative process. However, the complete removal of classification authority may so lessen management's sense of responsibility for proper position classification that even the most conscientious operating official will feel free to ignore the basic tenets of classification.

When the underlying forces which tend to disrupt classification are reduced, it should be possible to bring the operating official to a fuller realization of his responsibility for the administration of the classification plan and to demonstrate the advantages which will be achieved. With the acceptance of this responsibility, under a truly decentralized classification system, enlightened management brings the classification technician into its preliminary discussions on any policies and programs with potential classification implications. When the classification technician, as well as representatives of other specialized management techniques, are present in such discussions, all the many facets of the situations under consideration can be explored. Being able to canvass a number of alternative solutions provides a better basis for arriving at sound decisions. Excluded from management councils, however, the classifier sees only one of the possible solutions (and management may not have explored many, if any, others) when he

receives "requests for classification actions." Frequently, the only decision the classifier can reach under such circumstances may not please management and may be an actual deterrent to its planning. At best the classifier's last moment appearance to allocate the position is only a minimal contribution to the entire management process. From the long-term point of view the participation of the classifier with management would make for speedier, more economical and more sensible classification service than the traditional situation where the emphasis may be so exclusively on production that there is a temptation to classify almost entirely on the basis of job sheets. These sheets may gloss over or obscure the essential job characteristics as well as conceal a host of management sins.

While a central control agency *might* be generously enough staffed with technicians to provide advisory services to management, the entire attitude framework of management is very likely to be different when all the power resides in the central agency. It is also conceivable that there would be more reluctance to discuss fully certain relevant matters involving personalities, individual aptitudes, program weaknesses, etc., with an individual who is not a member of the staff of the operating organization. Mr. McInnis recognizes that the "advisory service to operating officials . . . is the classification function least certain to be improved" by his recommended plan. This is the very place where classification can and should be most effective.

Although it is recognized that the existence of a central control body is necessary in order to insure the proper, legal, and uniform use of classification, it is believed that such control exercised through the development of standards and the periodic check of the programs and specific practices of the operating components of the jurisdiction can provide the services and benefits advocated as necessary by Mr. McInnis without removing an essential and important responsibility from management. Moreover, the very remoteness of the central control body from the day-to-day maintenance of a classification plan places it in a more objective and strategic position to marshal the forces of all concerned (including the operating organization) for the elimination of the problems besetting the administration of the plan.

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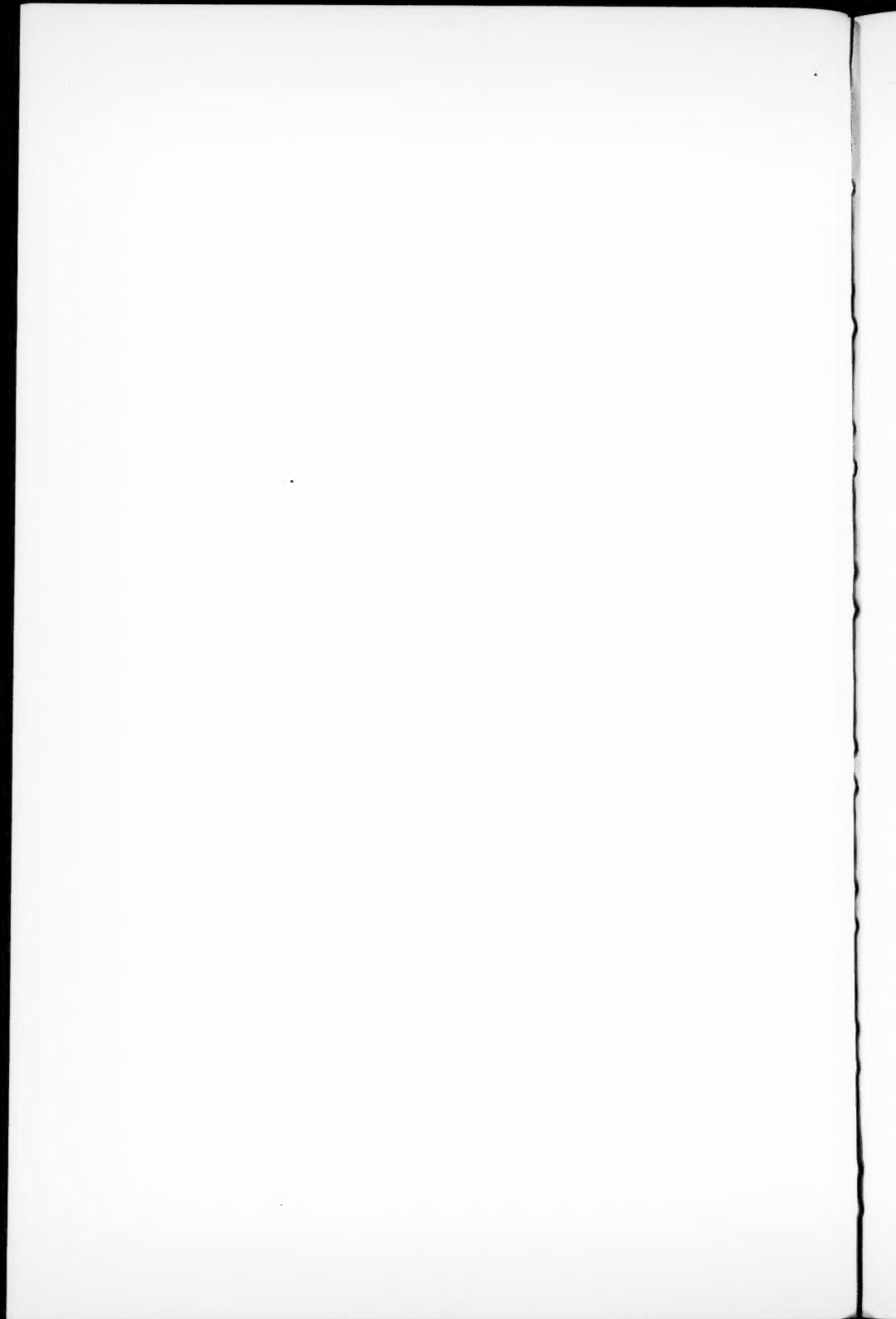
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